

Particle Number Size Distribution of Wintertime Alpine Aerosols and Their Activation as Cloud Condensation Nuclei in the Guanzhong Plain, Northwest China

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Key points:

- Small diameter particle increased from NPF erupted frequently in 13:00-18:00 and had a potential contribution to CCN in the growth process.
- More hygroscopic and larger particles were small index k , while the hydrophobic and small particles were opposite in winter observation.
- The hygroscopicity parameter decreased from 0.22 to 0.13 with the supersaturation from 0.2 to 1.0% in the Alpine region.

Abstract:

In this study, particle number size distribution (PNSD) and concentration of cloud condensation nuclei (N_{CCN}) were observed at the summit of Mt. Hua during Dec. 16th 2020 - Jan. 23rd 2021. The concentration of nucleation mode particles with the growth ratio of $0.83 \text{ nm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ erupted frequently from 13:00 to 18:00 local time due to the intense photochemistry. The explosive increase of the small diameter particles could not be activated into droplets, but they had the potential to adsorb or absorb the polluted gaseous to promote the growth conversion into CCN. In the growth process, relative humidity had reverse effect on diameter and concentration with temperature, while higher wind speed was beneficial for the removal of large particles. SO_2 and NH_3 had a synergistic effect in contributing to the increase of particle diameter and concentration for the relative larger diameter, but NH_3 had inverse effect on the number concentration for the nucleation mode particles. Additionally, the influence of O_3 on the distribution characteristics of particle may be regulated by temperature. The small k value that fitted by two-parameter power model suggested the larger or hygroscopic particles, while larger value for the ultrafine or hydrophobic particles. Hygroscopicity parameters (κ) showed a downward trend with the increase of supersaturation as the source direction of the air mass gradually shifted from northwest to southwest. By comparing the calculated and the measured N_{CCN} , we inferred that the hygroscopicity parameter decreased from 0.22 to 0.13 with the supersaturation from 0.2 to 1.0% in Alpine region.

Plain Language Summary:

This manuscript reported the characteristics of particle number size distribution of alpine aerosols and their activation as cloud condensation nuclei on Mt. Hua in winter, 2020. We found that the number concentration of nucleation mode particles with the growth ratio of $0.83 \text{ nm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ erupted frequently from 13:00 to 18:00 local time due to the intense photochemistry. In addition, the small diameter particle increased from NPF and had a potential contribution to CCN through the process of the growth, which was affected by air masses, meteorological conditions, and gaseous pollutants. Subsequently, we fitted the correlation between N_{CCN} and supersaturations, and found that the small k value that fitted by two-parameter power model suggested the larger or hygroscopic particles, while larger value for the ultrafine or hydrophobic particles. Finally, we calculated the hygroscopicity parameters (κ) that showed a downward trend with the increase of supersaturation due to the shift of the air masses. By comparing the calculated and measured N_{CCN} , we inferred that the hygroscopicity parameter decreases from 0.22 to 0.13 with the supersaturation from 0.2 to 1.0% in the Alpine region.

1 Introduction

Aerosols suspended in the atmosphere can influence the climate by direct and indirect effects (Kim et al., 2017). Direct effects include the aerosol particle interactions with radiative forcing by scattering, absorption, and reflection, resulting in warming or cooling of the atmosphere (Konovalov et al.; Ramana et al., 2007; Ramanathan et al., 2007; Saturno et al., 2018; Seinfeld et al., 2016). Indirect effects include aerosol particle acting as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) or ice nuclei (IN), thereby affecting the microphysical and macrophysical properties of different types of clouds, radiation, dynamics, precipitation, and lifetime (Chang et al., 2017; Charnawskas et al., 2017; Peng et al., 2020; Poschl and Shiraiwa, 2015; Sebastian et al., 2021; Seinfeld et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018b; Zhang et al., 2015). Nevertheless, the role of aerosols in the environment often tends to be estimated with large uncertainty due to much is known on the indirect effects of aerosols (Hung et al., 2014; Ramanathan et al., 2005; Seinfeld et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2021a).

Aerosols can be divided into four modes according to the aerosol particle diameter, that is, the nucleation mode ($< \sim 30\text{nm}$), Aitken mode ($\sim 30\text{-}100\text{nm}$), accumulation mode ($100\text{-}1000\text{nm}$), and coarse mode ($> 1000\text{nm}$). The ambient aerosol particle number size distribution (PNSD) associated with direct particle emissions, in situ formation processes, atmospheric interactions between particles or between particles and gaseous compounds, and deposition processes (Wu and Boor, 2021). Furthermore, aerosol properties exhibit significant difference in the atmosphere largely depending on interaction between local and regional sources and atmospheric processing (Monteiro dos Santos et al., 2021). Almost all particles in the range of nucleation mode are new particles formed by gaseous precursors (Franco et al., 2022; Sebastian et al., 2021; Wu and Boor, 2021). Wang et al. (2014) discussed the variations in the aerosol number spectrum and the NPF events for various types of air masses in combination with meteorological data (Wang et al., 2014). Subsequently, the fresh formed clusters adsorb more gaseous molecules increasing their diameter, and gradually transit to nucleation mode and Aitken mode. Li et al. (2011) identified the individual aerosol particles with

TEM, monitored the NPF and growth events by a wide-range particle spectrometer, and analyzed ion concentrations in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (Li et al., 2011b). When in high supersaturation conditions or cloud processes, the growing particles acting as cloud condensation nuclei can be activated to become cloud droplets.

Some researchers found that the number of aerosols from new particle formation (NPF) can contribute about half of the global CCN (Andreae et al., 2022; Cai et al., 2021; Franco et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2021). Particles are activated under the supersaturation (SS) environment when the particle size is larger than the critical particle size related to the hygroscopicity parameter, κ . According to the Köhler theory, the larger the particle is, the easier it is to be activated. That is, the relationship between κ value and critical particle size is inversely proportional (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). Thus, aerosol particles in the Aitken mode and accumulation mode are apt to act as cloud condensation nuclei to be activated into cloud droplets, which affects the microphysical process of cloud. Although nucleation mode aerosol particles, which require relative higher supersaturation to be activated, are derived from the event of NPF, the subsequent growth of new aerosol particles can still affect cloud condensation nuclei under low relative humidity (Fan et al., 2018; Kulmala and Kerminen, 2008; Ueda et al., 2016). The CCN number concentration (N_{CCN}) is crucial in characterizing aerosol–cloud interaction and their radiative impacts. So far, observation and analysis of aerosols and CCN were mainly focused on the sites of urban, rural, forested, coastal and remote mainland areas (Wang et al., 2014). However, such study on Alpine region of aerosol is still limited. The technologies that have been used to study the Alpine region of aerosols and CCN include UAV aviation flight (Li et al., 2019; Manoj et al., 2021), remote sensing technology and in-situ measurement (Li et al., 2020; Li et al., 2014). Observation on the top of mountain sites make it possible to investigate regional aerosol and CCN in the free troposphere, and its interactions with free troposphere–boundary layer (Varghese et al., 2016). Some ground sites observation had been carried out to monitor the N_{CCN} as well as the hygroscopicity, but their result cannot straightforward be extrapolated to the vicinity or the bulk of the cloud due to the vertical distribution differences. In addition, observation of N_{CCN} at Alpine sites can directly

reflect the characteristics of the particles that become cloud condensation nuclei. Li et al. (2017) investigated the chemical composition of cloud samples and droplet size distributions at the summit of Mt. Tai (Li et al., 2017a). The variations in the CCN properties are strongly influenced by the number size distribution, chemical composition and mixing state of aerosols (Eleftheriadis et al., 2020; Manoj et al., 2021; Vu et al., 2019). Although it is also one of the key factors affecting aerosol activation to become cloud condensation nuclei, the particle mixing state will cause differences in N_{CCN} prediction due to the changes in component (Gaston et al., 2018; Hughes et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2017; Stevens and Dastoor, 2019; Vu et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2021b; Zhang et al., 2022). Vu et al. suggested that the internal and external mixing of succinic acid and sodium chloride did not affect the change of CCN number concentration, while the number of activated CCN changed greatly with the variation of particle size and mixing ratio after the combustion aerosol was mixed with NaCl and $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ (Vu et al., 2019). However, other researchers investigated the mixing state of aerosols by monitoring the hygroscopic GF-PDF distribution of environmental aerosols and black carbon (Li et al., 2018; Stevens and Dastoor, 2019; Wang et al., 2018a; Xu et al., 2021b; Zhang et al., 2022). On the contrary, Kammermann et al. showed that the particle mixing state has little effect on N_{CCN} prediction in the polar regions with few influence from anthropogenic sources (Kammermann et al., 2010). In addition, some researchers are engaged in this research, that is, using real-time aerosol chemical composition measurement to estimate N_{CCN} (Arub et al., 2020; Cai et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2017; Mallet et al., 2016; Patel and Jiang, 2021). However, the accurate hygroscopicity parameter of organic matter has become an obstacle to the estimation of N_{CCN} . In generally, when the chemical composition is unknown, the κ value of hygroscopicity parameters can be assumed to calculate the activation critical particle size according to Köhler theory, and then the activated N_{CCN} can be calculated in combination with PNSD spectrum (Jayachandran et al., 2017; Kammermann et al., 2010; Rejano et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2021a). The calculation process of general N_{CCN} is summarized by Kammermann et al. and Xu et al. (Kammermann et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2021a). Therefore, the hygroscopicity of aerosol particles forming cloud condensation

nuclei can be directly obtained by measuring them on high mountains with SMPS-CCN instruments that is a comparison between the measured and the extrapolated N_{CCN} (Xu et al., 2021a).

In this study, measurements on time-resolved PNSD of aerosol and N_{CCN} were carried out for the first time at the summit of the West Peak of Mt. Hua. The measurements were from Dec. 16th 2020 to Jan. 23rd as a winter campaign to explore the basic characteristics of particulate matter. Simultaneously, the formation and dissipation of clouds for Alpine areas can be figured out by the aerosols from external long-distance transportation, anthropogenic emissions and natural source emissions with the method of revealing the characteristics of Alpine aerosol particles and the mechanism of CCN formation. Thus, aerosols and CCN could be observed directly and effectively on the West peak of Mt. Hua since the sampling site was closed to the margin or in the bulk of the cloud. The results of observation would reveal the interaction between aerosols and clouds and the potential for aerosols to form clouds in northwest China. In this paper, the structure of the paper was as follows. Firstly, the sampling location, instrument method and data calculation process were introduced. In addition, we analyzed the diurnal variation of aerosol PNSD for five divided episodes and its correlation with meteorological parameters and gaseous pollutant. What's more, the diurnal variation characteristics of N_{CCN} with supersaturation were also analyzed and fitted with a C and k two-parameter power model. Finally, the critical truncation diameter and hygroscopicity parameter were calculated, and the calculated N_{CCN} was compared to the actual measured N_{CCN} .

2. Method

2.1 Sampling site

The meteorological station is located at the summit of the West Peak of Mt. Hua (34.48°N, 110.08°E, 2060 m a.s.l, [Figure 1 and S1](#)), which is about 130 km away from the east of the Xi'an City. Although this summit sampling site, as description in the paper published by Li et al. (Li et al., 2011a; Li et al., 2013), is a tourist attraction, our sampling was conducted during the annual overhaul and maintenance of the uphill

cableway for tourists and hence the influence of summit anthropogenic sources was negligible. Meteorological parameters on the summit of the West Peak including temperature, relative humidity (RH), pressure, visibility, wind speed, wind direction, and precipitation were monitored and recorded over the measurement campaign. In addition, the data of the boundary layer height and surface net solar radiation during the sampling period were downloaded from the Climate Data Store website (<https://climate.copernicus.eu/climate-data-store>). Before the sampling, the time of all instruments was adjusted to the local zone time, and the recorded data were also corresponding to the local zone time.

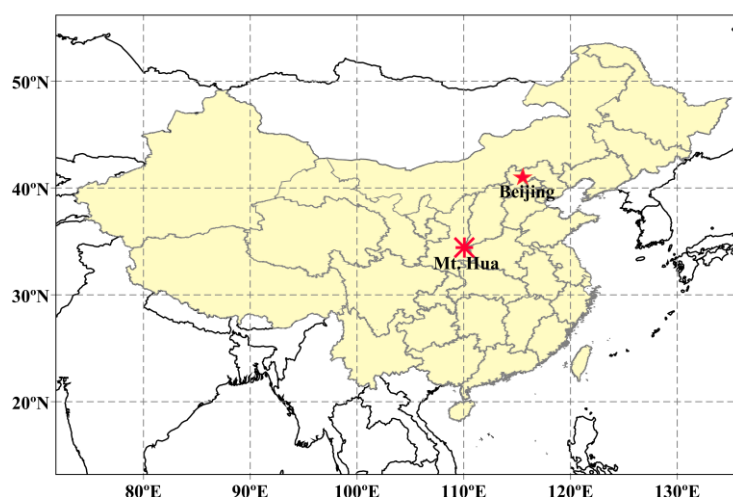


Figure 1. Location of the sampling site at Mt. Hua in central China (image from © Meteoinfo Software)

2.2 Gaseous pollutants

Two trace gas analyzers, Thermo 48i and Thermo 43i (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA), were used to monitor the concentration of CO and SO₂, respectively (Monteiro dos Santos et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2019). O₃ concentration was monitored using an ultraviolet photometer based on the ultraviolet absorption spectrometry (EC9810B, ECOTECH, Australia) (Hakim et al., 2019). NH₃ concentration was monitored in real time by a high-precision cavity ringdown spectrometer (CRDS) (G2103, Piccaro, USA), and a detailed description is provided in supplementary materials (Text S1). (He et al., 2020; Martin et al., 2016; Wentworth et al., 2016). NO_x concentration was also monitored but its concentration is lower than the detection limit of the Thermo 42i-D analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham,

MA, USA) and therefore the data is not discussed in this work.

2.3 Particle number-size distribution (PNSD) of aerosol

Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer Spectrometer (SMPS) was employed to monitor particle number-size distribution of aerosol (PNSD). The SMPS is composed of an electrostatic classifier (3082, TSI Inc., USA), a Nano Differential Mobility Analyzer (Nano-DMA, 3085, TSI Inc., USA) or a Long Differential Mobility Analyzer (Long-DMA, 3081, TSI Inc., USA), a N-butanol based Condensation Particle Counters (CPC, 3775, TSI Inc., USA). The SMPS was placed in an air-conditioned room of 25°C and a piece of sampling tube (1/4 inches) made of conductive silicone was stretched out of the window for a certain distance. In order to ensure the accuracy and reliability of data, the flow rates were adjusted every 3 days, 203 nm Polystyrene Latex (PSL) calibration and in-situ intercomparison (ACTRIS Round Robin Tour) according to the ACTRIS and GAW recommendations (Rejano et al., 2021; Stolzenburg et al., 2018; Wiedensohler et al., 2012) was performed at the beginning of the campaign, and multiple charge correction and diffusion loss corrections were applied to all data (Dameto de España et al., 2017). In general, the ratio of aerosol and sheath flowrates was set to 1:10 (0.3 and 3 L·min⁻¹, respectively), and data acquisition was recorded every 5 min.

In order to obtain extensive information of particle distribution on Mt. Hua, two-phase sampling campaigns were designated. The first-phase one was from Dec. 16th to 24th, 2020 (denoted as T1) when a Nano-DMA was employed in monitoring the aerosol particles with a size ranging from 4.45 to 162.5nm with particular interest in nucleation mode of particulate matter (Eleftheriadis et al., 2020; Li et al., 2019; Pryor et al., 2016; Stolzenburg et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020; Weller et al., 2015). The second-phase one was from Jan. 9th to 23th, 2021 (denoted as T2) when a Long-DMA replacing Nano-DMA was adopted for scanning number-size distribution of Atiken and accumulation mode particles with a size ranging from 14.1 to 736.5nm. (Baalbaki et al., 2021; Han et al., 2013; Monteiro dos Santos et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2018).

2.4 Cloud droplet nucleation measurements

A continuous-flow streamwise thermal-gradient single column Cloud Condensation Nuclei counter (CCN-100, Droplet Measurement Technologies, USA) was employed for measuring N_{CCN} at a time resolution of 1 Hz for five supersaturation (SS) values (SS=0.2%, 0.4%, 0.6%, 0.8%, 1.0%) during the period from Dec. 16th, 2020 to Jan. 23rd, 2021. The CCN counter was installed in parallel with the SMPS by a Y-type tee joint connected to the outlet of the self-made silica gel diffusion dryer. During sampling, an amount of 0.5 lpm of ambient air dividing into aerosols and sheath stream at the ratio of flowrate of 1:10 was flowing into the chamber of the CCN counter (Rejano et al., 2021). A constant water vapor supersaturation would be established along the centerline of the column because water molecules from column wall diffused more quickly than heat transfer. Once the aerosol particles were continuously exposed to the varying SS conditions generated inside the column, some of them whose critical supersaturation less than the given supersaturation would act as CCN to be activated into droplets (Jayachandran et al., 2018). In general, the diameter of activated particles is considered to lie in the range of 0.75-10 μm , and the sampling time for each SS was set in such a way that the total cycle period of five supersaturations was completed in 30 min with 0.20% SS for 10 min and 5 min each for other SS (Singla et al., 2017).

Prior to sampling, the CCN counter was calibrated by operating in parallel with a CPC downstream of the DMA that classified monodispersed $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ aerosols originated from drying of aqueous droplets generated by atomizer (Rose et al., 2008; Rose et al., 2010). For the sake of data reduction, we follow the ACTRIS standardized protocol (available in <http://actris.nilu.no/Content/SOP>) for N_{CCN} data. According to this protocol, the raw data of CCN have been filtered as follows: firstly, only data with SS above the 1st percentile and below the 99th percentile have been taken into account for each SS setpoint value. Then for each SS value, we computed the average value and the standard deviation (STD). Secondly, data above and below 1.5 times the STD were flagged as invalid and not further used. Normally the first and last points in each SS step were the points that did not satisfy the criteria because the SS conditions in the growth chamber are not yet stable (Rejano et al., 2021).

2.5 Parameters derived from the SMPS and CCN spectra

The applicability of lognormal particle size distributions in describing the properties of aerosol size distributions have been discussed in several papers (Koponen, 2003; Monteiro dos Santos et al., 2021; Ueda et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2021). All the particle number size distributions could be fitted using unimodal or bimodal lognormal modes: nucleation modes (<30 nm), Aitken mode (30–100 nm), and up to an accumulation mode (>100 nm) (Monteiro dos Santos et al., 2021). The geometric mean diameter (GMD) and the geometric standard deviation (σ) is often quoted and specify the distribution (Grainger, 2020):

$$\text{GMD} = \exp \left(\frac{\sum_i N_i \ln(D_i)}{\sum_i N_i} \right) \quad (1)$$

$$\sigma = \exp \left\{ \left[\frac{\sum_i N_i (\ln d_i - \ln(\text{GMD}))^2}{N - 1} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\} \quad (2)$$

where N_i is for the particle number in each corresponding bin, D_i stands for the diameter of in each bin, N is for the total particle number of aerosols.

The calculation of particle growth and formation rates along with the condensation sink was done according to the procedure described by Kulmala et al. (2012) (Baalbaki et al., 2021; Kulmala et al., 2012; Kulmala et al., 2004; Qi et al., 2015). The growth rate (GR) of particles, a central parameter for quantifying the diameter of particles reaching climatically relevant sizes, can be expressed as:

$$\text{GR} = \frac{ddp}{dt} = \frac{\Delta dp}{\Delta t} = \frac{d_{p_2} - d_{p_1}}{t_2 - t_1} \quad (3)$$

where d_{p1} and d_{p2} are the mean values of the size bin of nucleation mode particles corresponding to the maximal number concentration at the times t_1 and t_2 , respectively.

The key parameterization of CCN spectra, which is the curve that relates N_{CCN} to SS, is the power law derived by Twomey (1959) (Jayachandran et al., 2017; 2018; Rejano et al., 2021; Twomey, 1959; Varghese et al., 2016):

$$N_{\text{CCN}}(\text{SS}) = C \cdot \text{SS}^k \quad (4)$$

where C and k are empirical fit parameters. The C parameter represents the N_{CCN} at

corresponding SS and tracks aerosol concentration variation. The higher the C value is, the higher the aerosol particles load is (Rejano et al., 2021; Shen et al., 2019). The parameter of k is a dimensionless exponent and gives information about the steepness of the CCN spectra. Therefore, an aerosol population dominated by hygroscopic or big aerosol particles would have flat CCN spectra and low values of k , while steep CCN spectra and high k values are related to hydrophobic or ultrafine particles, which would need higher SS to be activated into droplets (Rejano et al., 2021).

Activation ratio (AR) is the fractional contribution of N_{CCN} to total aerosol number concentration (N_{CN}), which is one of the most crucial information required for understanding the aerosol-cloud interactions and its radiative forcing (Burkart et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2019; Dusek et al., 2003; Hung et al., 2014; Jayachandran et al., 2017; 2018; Kim et al., 2018). The N_{CCN} calculated from the particle number size distributions ($N_{CCN}(PNSD)$) is obtained by integrating the PNSD of particles larger than the critical dry particle diameter (D_{crit}) (Shen et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2021a),

$$N_{CCN}(PNSD) = \int_{D_{crit}}^{D_{upper}} n_{CN}(\log D_p) d(\log D_p) \quad (5)$$

where, the D_{upper} represents for the upper limitation of PNSD, which is $D_{upper}=736.5\text{nm}$, in this study. D_{crit} is the activated diameter particles. If D_{crit} is equal to the lower limitation of the particle number-size spectrum, i.e. $D_{crit}=D_{lower}=14.1\text{nm}$ in this study, then all the particles are activated with the $AR=1$. $n_{CN}(\log D_p)$, aerosol particle number size distribution, is equal to the $dN/d\log D_p$ (Mallet et al., 2016).

In general, the value of D_{crit} depend on the SS, which can be related to the single parameter hygroscopicity, κ , to describe the CCN activity and to determine the effect of mixing states of multiple components on the supersaturated hygroscopic properties of aerosols (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007; Vu et al., 2019). Thus, the hygroscopicity parameters, κ , corresponding to the activated diameter values can be calculated by Eq.(6) and Eq.(7) (Dusek et al., 2010; Kammermann et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2018; Miao et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2021a):

$$\kappa = \frac{4A^3}{27D_{crit}^3 \ln^2 SS} \quad (6)$$

$$A = \frac{4\sigma_{s/a}M_w}{RT\rho_w} \quad (7)$$

where T is the absolute temperature (298.15 K), R is the universal gas constant ($8.314 \text{ J}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$), ρ_w is the density of water ($997.1 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$), M_w is the molar mass of water ($0.018 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$), and $\sigma_{s/a}$ is surface tension at the droplet–air interface (assumed to be $0.072 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$).

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Characteristic of PNSD

3.1.1 Nucleation mode

Previous field observations frequently recorded that the upper size of nucleation mode particles was in the range of 20-30nm (Chen et al., 2017; Gogoi et al., 2014; Kompalli et al., 2014; Willis et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017) (see a summary in [Table S1](#)). According to the PNSD (shown in [Figure S2](#)) in 4.45 - 162.5 nm during Dec. 16th - 24th, 2020, particles with higher number concentration were mainly distributed in the range of nucleation and accumulation modes. However, the measurement of particles in accumulation modes was incomplete due to the limitation of SMPS, which was not discussed in detail in this study. Therefore, the variation characteristics of aerosols in nucleation mode with a diameter less than 30 nm were emphasized in detail in this study. [Figure S2](#) shows that the number concentration of particles increased sharply in the range of 10-30nm during the period of 13:00-18:00 pm, and the unimodal distribution pattern of nucleation mode shift to larger diameter range due to particle growth, resulting in the increase of average geometric particle size with time (Wang et al., 2014). [Figure 2](#) presents the variation of average diurnal PNSD in the sampling period from Dec. 16th to 24th, 2020, for particle diameter smaller than 30nm. The numbers of particles were relatively stable corresponding to their $dN/d(\log D_p)$ much lower than $2000\#\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$ from 0:00 to 12:00, and particles with a diameter less than 8nm were almost lower than $400\#\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$ down to zero ([Figure 2a](#)). This result meant that there was a little ultrafine new particulate matter existing as the background in alpine aerosols on Mt. Hua in winter. Nevertheless, the number of particles with a diameter from 10nm to 20nm increased sharply from 14:00 to 17:00pm with the $dN/d(\log D_p)$ between 2000 and $4000\#\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$, accompanied by the broadening of the lognormal distribution of

particles in nucleation mode, which meant the increase of particle size. Subsequently, the number concentration of particles began to decline after 17:00pm with the narrowing of unimodal lognormal distribution. Furthermore, the particle size corresponding to the maximum concentration increased briefly from 13:00 to mid-night. Therefore, the particle GR can be fitted linearly with time from diurnal average data of particulate matter sampled on Mt. Hua according to Eq. (3). In this study, the fitted GR was $0.83 \text{ nm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, which was apparently lower than one on the ground areas and other mountain sites (Babu et al., 2016; Deng et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2011; Gao et al., 2009; Kanawade et al., 2014; Lampilahti et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2008; Minoura and Takekawa, 2005; Mönkkönen et al., 2005; Sebastian et al., 2021; Yue et al., 2009) (Table S2). Generally, particle GRs in urban locations tend to be higher than those in rural or remote environments, but are still of the same order of magnitude of $1\text{-}10 \text{ nm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (Kerminen et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2017). Thus, it can be inferred from the slow growth of aerosol particle diameter that the condensation or reaction rate of pollutants on the particle surface is low on the alpine region, which is not beneficial for the growth of particles. The profiles of diurnal mean variation of particles concentration and GMD with diameter smaller than 30nm, $\text{GMD}_{<30}$, were plotted in Figure 2(b). We observed GMD reached the lowest value at 14:00 pm that was consistent with the time when the surface net solar radiation reached the maximum value (Figure S4), accompanied by the highest degree of photochemical reaction. Thus, the sharp burst of particle number concentration in nucleation mode originate from new particle formation (NPF) might be caused by the intense photochemical reaction. The GMD of particles decreased rapidly due to the thousands of ultrafine particles.

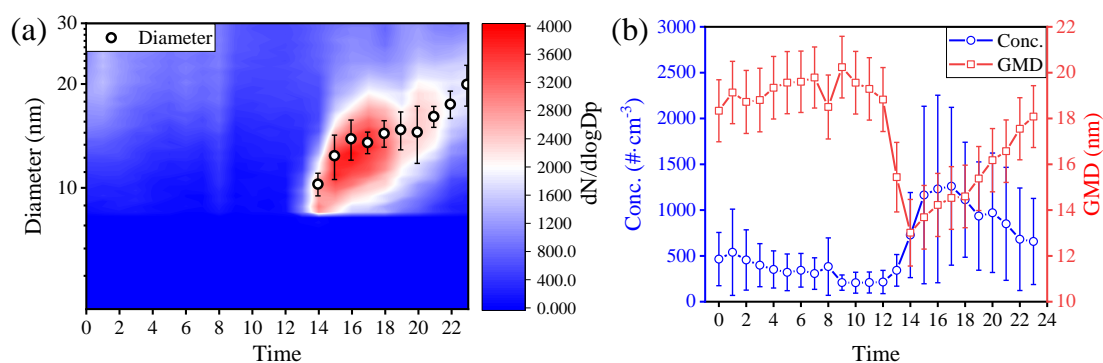


Figure 2 (a) The diurnal variation of PNSD for particle diameter is smaller than 30nm, and the contour from blue to red with the white intermediate color stands for the elevated number concentration $dN/d(\log D_p)$. In addition, the black circle with error bar is for the diameter corresponding to the maximum number concentration that was fitted

by lognormal function. (b) The diurnal variation of number concentration is presented by the blue circle with error bar, and the diurnal variation of GMD is plotted by the red square with error bar.

3.1.2 Aitken/accumulation mode

As known, particles with smaller diameter less than 30nm are less likely to be activated into a droplet unless they are under high supersaturation in the cloud process (Fan et al., 2018). Thus, it is necessary to observe the distribution characteristics of particles in Aitken and accumulation modes in order to estimate the activated critical diameter. In T2 period, particles ranging from 14.1 to 736.5nm in the alpine area were observed by using long-DMA from Jan. 9th to 23rd, 2021 (Figure S3). As shown in Figure S3, four episodes were divided corresponding to the PNSD during the sampling period: (1) P1 (Jan. 9th to 11th, 2021) and P4 (Jan. 19th to 23rd, 2021), without number concentration surge for particles with a diameter less than 30nm; (2) P2 (Jan. 11th to 13th, 2021) with dramatic increase concentration for particle around 30nm in diameter; (3) P3 (Jan. 14th to 18th, 2021) with the bimodal distribution occurred frequently. The variation of meteorological conditions was also different with each other in the four episodes, as shown in Figure S4. For example, temperature was low but relatively stable, while the relative humidity showed a gradually increasing trend in P1 episode. In P2 episode, while the temperature rose rapidly with large wind speed from southwest direction, the relative humidity and air pressure showed the opposite trend. In P3 cycle, the temperature decreased rapidly to -23°C due the cold air mass and returned to normal temperature rapidly, while the relative humidity and pressure showed profiles of increasing first and then decreasing. The temperature was relatively high and accompanied by small fluctuations in P4 episode.

The diurnal mean variations of PNSD in the four episodes are shown in Figure 3. During P1 episode, the relative high number concentration spanned continuously from Aitken mode to the accumulation mode (Figure 3a). It was found from Figure 3b that the number concentration at night was significantly higher than that during the day, but the GMD was almost unchanged about 80 nm. While for P2 episode, most of particle were distributed in the diameter range of 20nm to 40nm with the maximum concentration of around 30nm, lying in the modes of nucleation and Aitken (Figure 3c). The number concentration was becoming smaller gradually along with GMD of particles becoming larger from 1:00 am to 13:00 pm (Figure 3d). Although the particle

in P3 episode (Figure 3e) was more extensive than the first two episodes, the relative high number concentration stretch over the nucleation, Atiken and accumulation modes range during the nighttime. In addition, the particles showed a bimodal distribution pattern, and the two peaks gradually approached and merged into a single peak distribution from the midday to the next dawn. The number concentration presented a tendency for night to be higher than day value for first three episodes. The GMD decreased and the number concentration increased from 13:00 to 18:00 p.m., which was related to the intense photochemical reaction. As for P4, the number concentration presented a tendency for day to be higher than night value in the accumulation mode, which might be due to the shift of the source direction of the air mass (Figure 3g and Figure S5). It could be concluded from Figure 3h that the increasing GMD tended to decrease fleetly due to disturbances during the generation of new particle bursts. However, it was obvious that the number concentration was almost the same with a value of about 2000 \#cm^{-3} .

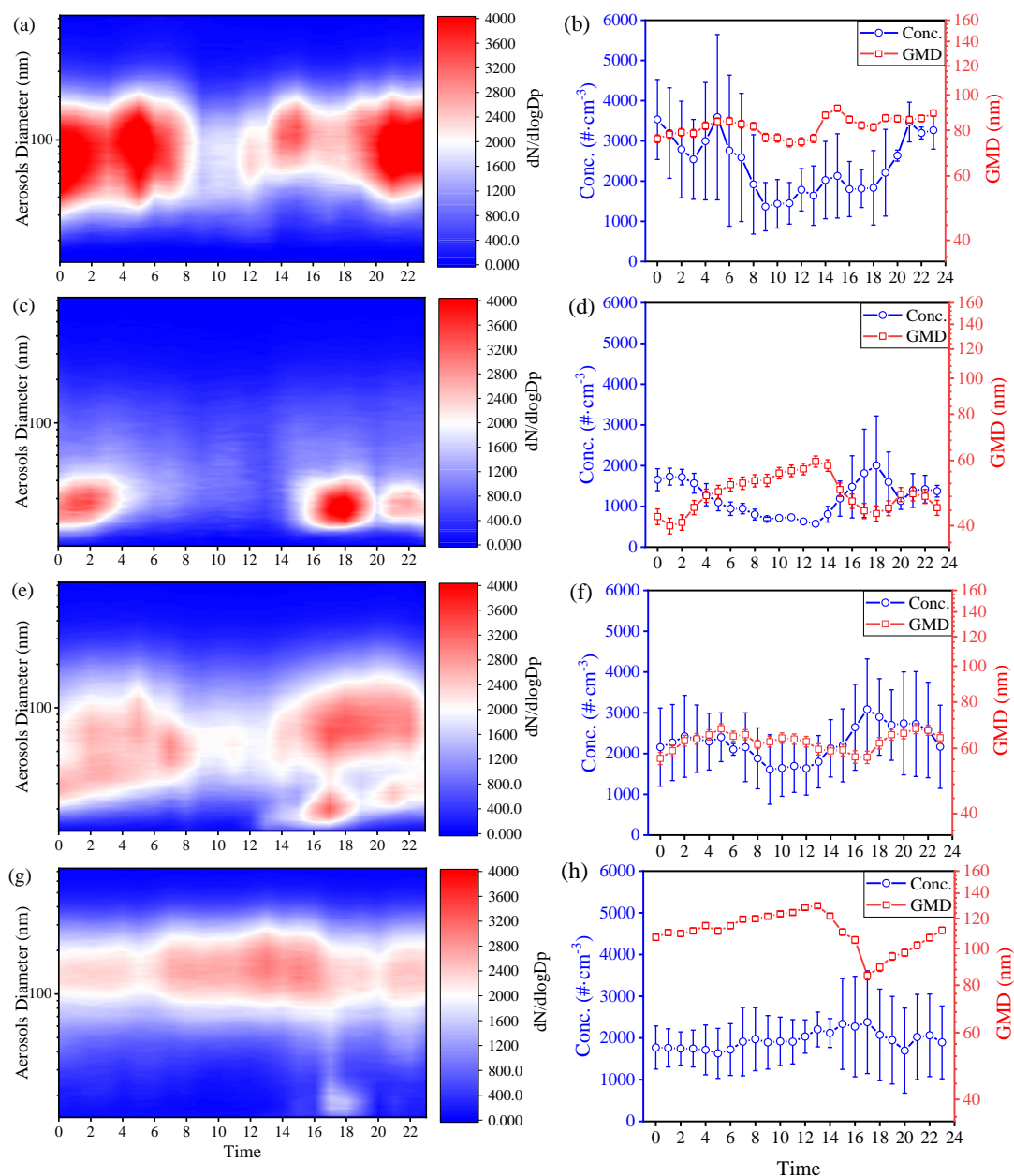


Figure 3 The diurnal $dN/d(\log D_p)$ contour of PNSD for particle aerodynamic diameter and the number concentration for the second phase on the left panel. And the diurnal variation of number concentration is presented by the blue circle with error bar, and the diurnal variation of GMD is plotted by the red square with error bar on the right panel. What's more, the corresponding diagram of the specified measurement period is as follows: (a) and (b) for P1 period (9th Jan. to 11th Jan. 2021); (c) and (d) for P2 period (11th Jan. to 13th Jan. 2021); (e) and (f) for P3 period (14th Jan. to 18th Jan. 2021); (g) and (h) for P4 period (19th Jan. to 23rd Jan. 2021).

3.2 Correlation of PNSD with meteorological parameters and gaseous pollutants

3.2.1 Nucleation mode

As shown in Table S3, the average ambient temperature, relative humidity (RH) and wind speed during T1 period were $-4.95 \pm 4.12^\circ\text{C}$, $41.52 \pm 17.52\%$, and 4.90 ± 2.35 m/s, respectively. The prevailing wind direction were southwest and northwest (Figure S4).

As for T1 episode, in this study, the particle growth was positively correlated with RH ($R=0.54$), and negatively correlated with temperature ($R=-0.32$) (Table 1). In general, the synergistic effect of declining temperature and elevating RH would modulate the evolutionary growth and distribution of aerosol particles in the air. For example, on Dec. 23rd, 2020 the increasing RH and decreasing temperature were conducive to the formation of large particles, which resulted in no surge of the number concentration of particles with the size less than 30nm. Compared to the correlation between particle size and RH, however, the correlation between number concentration and RH showed the opposite trend (-0.22) in T1 episode (Kumar et al., 2011; Li et al., 2017b; Lyubovtseva et al., 2008), implying that particles in nucleation mode could adsorb water vapor in the environment and grow into particles with a larger particle size. There was no obvious correlation between temperature and number concentration in nucleation mode, indicating that it was not temperature that caused the explosion of number concentration, but photochemical reaction caused by strong solar radiation leading to the decreasing GMD. Thus, there was a negative correlation between elevating temperature and decreasing GMD. In addition, wind speed negatively correlated with number concentration ($R=-0.33$) and positively correlated with particle size ($R=0.28$), implying that higher wind speed could dilute the concentration of particles and to promote the growth of particles in nucleation mode.

Particle growth also depended significantly on the concentration of gaseous precursors in the atmosphere. For instance, the higher concentration of O_3 was favorable for the photochemical reaction to form new smaller particles and increase the concentration of particles (Baalbaki et al., 2021; Hara et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2021; Qi et al., 2015; Ueda et al., 2016). Wang et al. pointed out that enhanced formation of sulfate and SOA driven by photochemical oxidation could promote the formation and growth of new particles (Wang et al., 2016). Thus, O_3 had a positive correlation with particle number concentration ($R=0.23$) and a negative correlation with GMD ($R=-0.36$) in T1 episode. Furthermore, both SO_2 and NH_3 had positive correlation with GMD and negative correlation with number concentration, meaning that SO_2 and NH_3 had synergistic effect to accelerate the evolution of particles accompanied by the decrease

of number concentration (Berndt et al., 2008; Chu et al., 2016).

Table 1 the relationship of GMD and the number concentration with the meteorological parameters: RH, temperature, and wind speed, as well as the gaseous pollutants: O₃, CO, SO₂, and NH₃.

Coefficient (R)	GMD					Num. Conc.				
	T1	P1	P2	P3	P4	T1	P1	P2	P3	P4
RH	0.54**	0.60**	-ns	0.41**	0.84**	-0.22**	-ns	0.37*	0.52**	0.59**
Temp.	-0.32**	-0.30*	0.35*	-0.20*	-0.27**	-ns	-0.44**	-0.66**	-0.26**	-0.44**
WS	0.28**	0.36**	-ns	-ns	-0.27**	-0.33**	-ns	0.31*	-0.44**	-0.48**
O₃	-0.36**	-0.54**	-ns	-0.29**	0.61**	0.23**	-0.80**	-ns	-0.47**	0.33**
SO₂	0.45**	0.66**	-ns	0.36**	0.47**	-0.53**	0.77**	0.55**	0.66**	0.81**
NH₃	0.29**	0.53**	-ns	0.27**	0.64**	-0.2*	0.63**	-0.48**	0.33**	0.81**

ns: $p > 0.05$; *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$.

3.2.2 Aitken/accumulation mode

Table 1 summarizes the linear correlation of particle size and number concentration with meteorological parameters in T2 period. Meteorological parameters are shown in Table S3 in the supplementary. RH was recognized as one of the crucial meteorological factors positively affecting the GMD, supported by the larger particle size, the stronger the correlation for P1, P3, and P4 episodes. In addition, RH would promote the increase of number concentration in P2, P3, and P4 episodes. The increasing wind speed and RH had little effect on the number of particles in P1 episode, both of which had a greater impact on the particle size. While in P2 episode, it was reversed with P1 episode, that was, the wind speed and RH had a great effect on number concentration due to the gale wind ($12.6 \pm 2.4 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) and lower RH ($18.4 \pm 4.7\%$), which was not conducive to the hygroscopic growth of particles. Wind speed was negatively correlated with particle size and number concentration in P3 and P4 episodes, meaning that the increase of wind speed was conducive to the removal of larger particles, leading to the reduction of GMD. However, in P2 episode, the gale wind removed large particles, which was conducive to the outbreak of number concentration with smaller diameter. As for the smaller size particles left behind in P2 episode after the larger diameter particles were blown away by higher wind speed, temperature ranked to be the most significant influence factor for GMD increasing, but temperature will reduce the GMD in other episodes. Moreover, temperature presented the negative correlation with number concentration for other

episodes. The reason was that the lower temperature was not conducive to the condensation of gaseous molecules into clusters to increase the number of particles, nor to the adsorption on the surface of existing particles to increase GMD. In addition, the elevated temperature on the Mt. Hua was conducive to the diffusion of particles to reduce the number concentration, for example, the negative correlation was -0.66 between number concentration and elevated temperature in P2 episode. In the published literatures, when the temperature was lower than 0°C in winter, the number concentration showed a downward trend with the increase of temperature (Hussein et al., 2006; Paasonen et al., 2013; Scott et al., 2017).

In P1 and P3 episodes when larger particles were more abundant and temperature was lower, O₃ played the negative roles to GMD and number concentration. However, O₃ presented a facilitation relationship with GMD and number concentration in P2 and P4 episodes when temperatures were relatively higher. It could be interpreted that O₃ was able to oxidize the gaseous precursor to form solid or semi-solid matters at relative high temperature, however, O₃ mainly reacted on the particle surface or in the bulk at low temperature to consume the substances in the particles (Huang et al., 2021). Besides, effects of SO₂ and NH₃ were significantly on GMD and number concentration of particulate matter in P1, P3, and P4 episodes, indicating that they played a crucial role in the growth process of particulate matter (Chu et al., 2016; He et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021). In P2 episode, however, the effects of the SO₂ on number concentration and GMD were different, suggesting that the SO₂ played an important role in the formation of particles to increase the number concentration rather than their diameter growth. This was consistent with the study of formation of granular seeds after SO₂ was converted into sulfuric acid (Okuljar et al., 2021; Williamson et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2021). In addition, there was a negative correlation between NH₃ and number concentration due to the low RH and the low concentration of NH₃.

3.3 Characteristic of activated CCN

Five supersaturations (SSs), i.e., 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.6%, 0.8%, and 1.0%, were set to measure the N_{CCN} (Figure S6). The diurnal variation profiles of N_{CCN} for four episodes

in T2 were depicted in Figure 4. For the activated CCN particles, the diurnal variation pattern was consistent with the change of aerosol number concentration. For P1, the N_{CCN} decreased from 5:00 am until it reached the lowest number concentration at 9:00 am, and then showed an overall upward trend, resulting in the N_{CCN} at night being significantly higher than that during the day. As the supersaturation increased from 0.2% to 1.0%, the increase of aerosol number concentration did not show a linear positive proportion, i.e., the difference of particle number concentration between two adjacent supersaturations gradually decreased. The minimum number of activated N_{CCN} for P2 episode decreased from 3:00 am to 13:00 pm. In addition, the activated N_{CCN} did not increase significantly with the increase of supersaturation, because the particles were mainly distributed at the nucleation mode and part of Aitken mode with a low probability of being activated at low supersaturation. However, N_{CCN} increased obviously from 13:00 to 18:00 pm, meaning that the number concentration of particles that can be activated in Aitken mode increased. It turned out that the products were increased due to the enhanced photochemical reaction and subsequently adsorbed on the surface of small diameter particles in the original or NPF event, resulting in the larger particle diameter that can be activated when the diameter exceeded the critical diameter. This indicated that the NPF events and their growth can affect the activated N_{CCN} . This conclusion was also reported in previous studies (Eleftheriadis et al., 2020; Kerminen et al., 2018; Rejano et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2017). During the P3 episode, N_{CCN} also showed a trend of first decrease from 7:00 am to 14:00 pm and then increase to 21:00 pm. It is worth noting that the activated particle number concentration showed different patterns with supersaturation at diurnal profiles. For example, the different from the diurnal variation of the number concentration of particles, the increased N_{CCN} started from 14:00 to 21:00pm, rather than from 12:00-17:00pm for aerosols. Compared to other times, the difference between the activated number concentration during this period at the same supersaturation gradually increased. For the P4 episode, the concentration of activated particles from 5:00 am continued to increase until 15:00 pm due to the broaden lognormal distribution and the increased maximum number concentration leading to more N_{CCN} . However, the N_{CCN} showed the decreasing

tendency after 15:00 pm because of the narrowing lognormal distribution and the reduction of the maximum number concentration, resulting in the less N_{CCN} . When the supersaturation exceeds 0.4% during this episode, the activated particle number concentration changed a little, meaning that the activated critical particle size of particles did not decrease gradual with the increase of supersaturation. It can be inferred that the hygroscopicity parameter of aerosol will gradually decrease with the supersaturation based on the Eq(6).

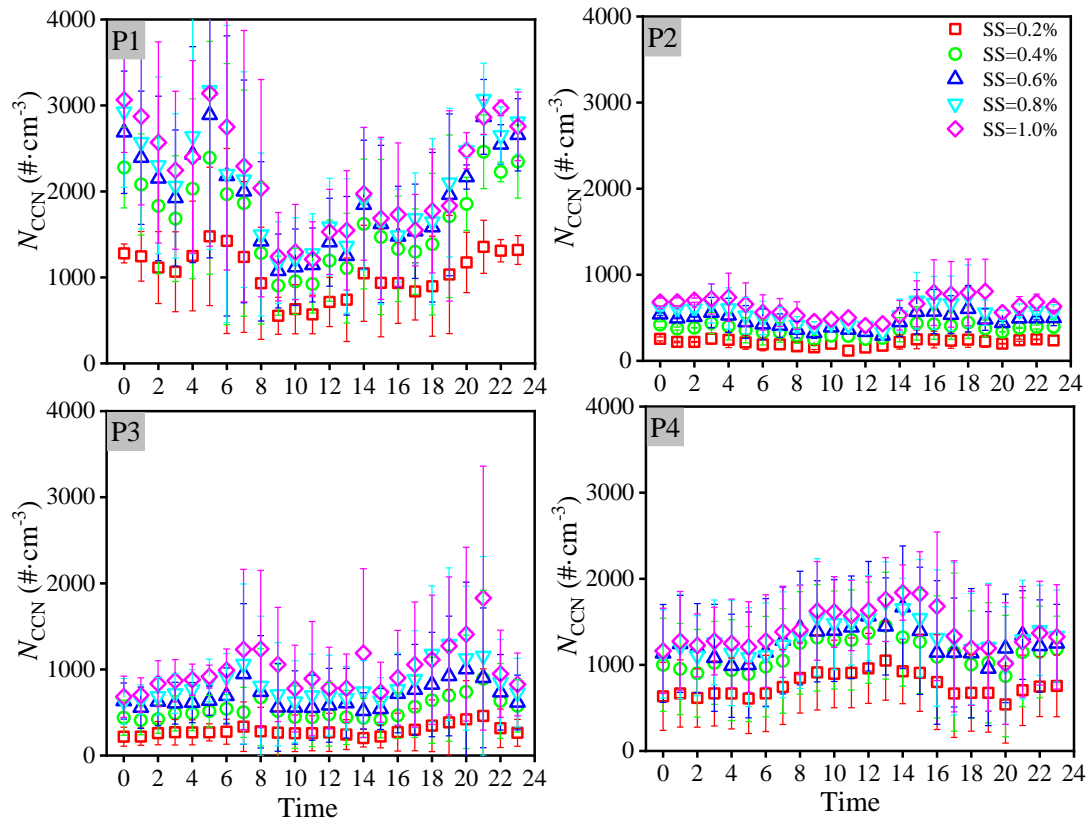


Figure 4 The diurnal variation of N_{CCN} for four episodes (P1, P2, P3, and P4) with five supersaturations of 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.6%, 0.8%, and 1.0%.

In the three modes, the order of activation was accumulation mode, Aitken mode and nucleation mode according to the Köhler theory (Li et al., 2017a; Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). The number concentration of diurnal cycle of different mode of particles and NCCN when the supersaturation was 0.2% and 1.0%, respectively, were shown as Figure 2. When the supersaturation was 0.2%, the number concentration of CCN was mainly derived from the accumulation mode in all these 4 episodes. However, when the supersaturation was 1.0%, the contribution of CCN come from the particles

in the full accumulation mode and part of Aitken mode. Thus, the contribution of particles from Aitken mode become larger when the supersaturation increase to a high value in the cloud processes (Arub et al., 2020; Manoj et al., 2021; Patel and Jiang, 2021; Rejano et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2014).

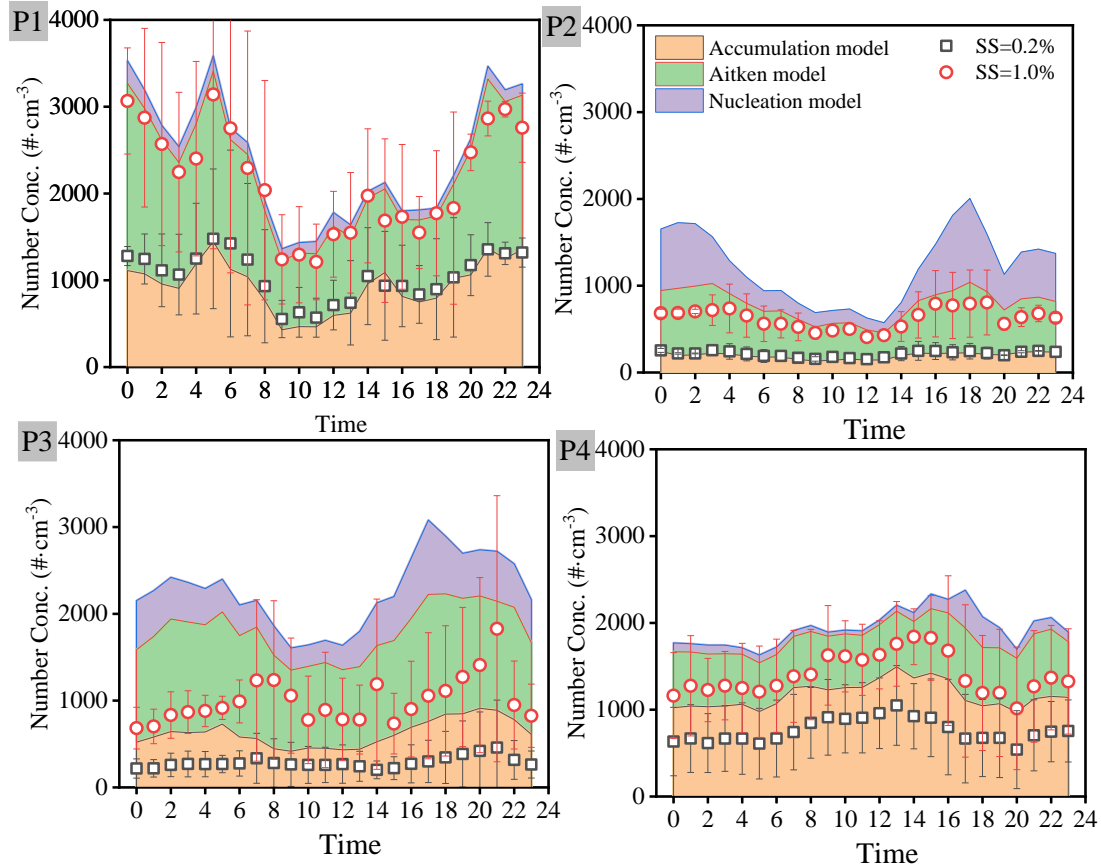


Figure 5 the diurnal cycle of different mode of particles and N_{CCN} when $SS=0.2\%$ and 1.0% , respectively.

3.4 Hygroscopicity and fitted two parameters

The combination measurements of PNSD and CCN activation distribution during nanoparticle events demonstrated the importance of the growth conversion from CCN aerosol particles to cloud droplets (O'Halloran et al., 2009). Subsequently, the critical particle size was calculated, that is, the ratio of the cumulative number concentration from the maximum particle size to the critical particle size to the total concentration was equal to the ratio of measured CCN/CN value. In addition, assuming that the

hygroscopic parameters, κ , are 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, respectively, the corresponding critical activated diameter values can be calculated, and the results were shown in the Figure 6(a). In P1 and P2 episodes, the critical dry particle diameter was distributed in Aitken mode under 5 supersaturations, while it was mainly in accumulation mode in P3 when the supersaturation was lower than 0.6%, and in P4 episodes when the supersaturation was lower than 0.4%. With the increase of supersaturation, the critical size of the activated particles becomes smaller. Interestingly, the critical particle diameter was always larger than 30 nm of the upper limitation of nucleation mode division when the supersaturation was below 1.0%, meaning that particles in the nucleation mode cannot act as CCN to be activated into droplets in the mountain alpine area. The influence of κ value is apparent on the critical particle size, that is, the larger its value is, the stronger the hygroscopic capacity is, resulting in the activation of smaller diameter particles (Dusek et al., 2010; Swietlicki et al., 2017). Under different supersaturation, predictions for the lower limitation activated particle diameter calculated in P1 and P2 episodes were in good agreement with the hygroscopicity parameters $\kappa=0.4$ and 0.3, respectively. However, the critical diameter in P3 and P4 episodes was higher than the corresponding value when $\kappa=0.1$, which meant that the hygroscopicity parameter of the actual particles is less than 0.1 (Hung et al., 2016).

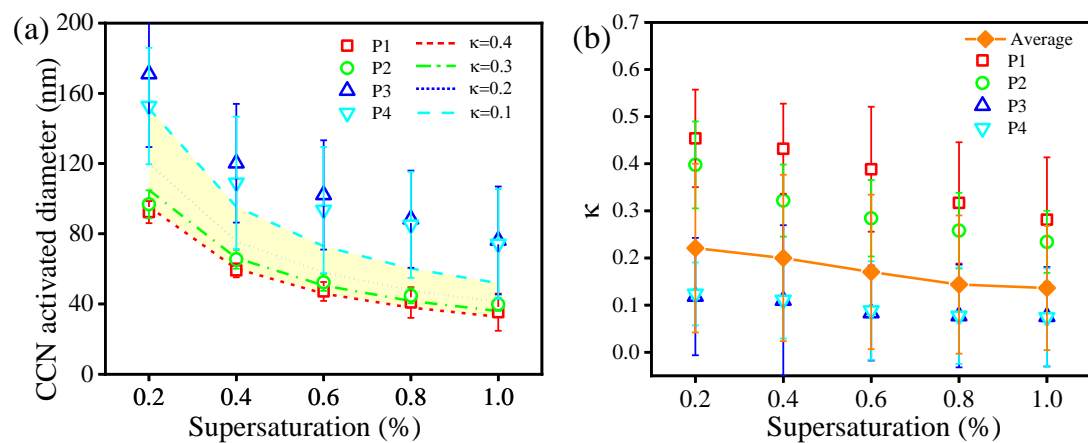


Figure 6 (a) critical activation particle size with supersaturation in four classification periods. The lines stand for the CCN activated diameter with the supersaturation assuming that $\kappa=0.1$, 0.2, 0.3, and 0.4. (b) the variation of κ with supersaturation for four periods and the orange diamond solid dotted with line is for the entire measurement period.

Petters et al. fitted observations to a one-parameter model, where κ represented a

quantitative measure of aerosol water uptake characteristics and CCN activity (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). κ value could be obtained for each scenario with the prediction of the critical CCN particle size from PNSD based on the Eq. (6). Figure 6(b) depicted the κ value in each episode and the mean value of the whole measurement period. The average hygroscopicity parameters of the whole period at supersaturation of 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.6%, 0.8%, and 1.0% were 0.22, 0.20, 0.17, 0.14, and 0.13, respectively. Moreover, it can be inferred from Figure 6(b) that the hygroscopicity parameters showed a downward trend with the increase of supersaturation, which may be due to the dissolution of more less hygroscopic substances, such as less-hygroscopic organic matter and nearly hydrophobic carbon black in the bulk of smaller particle (Dusek et al., 2010; Swietlicki et al., 2017). κ value in P1 and P2 episodes were obviously larger than that in P3 and P4 (Figure 6(b)), which may be related to the air masses transport. As shown in Figure S5, air mass trajectories during P1 and P2 episodes mainly come from the northwest with a long-distance transportation, while in P3 and P4 episodes air masses did from local areas and gradually shift to the southwest.

Two parameter schemes, C and k , was adopted to fit the CCN spectral distribution, and the results were shown in Figure 7. High values of C parameter were typically found in polluted areas with high load of aerosol particles, while low values of C were characteristic for remote or background sites (Ji and Shaw, 1998; Rejano et al., 2021). In this study, the parameter C values were $2283\#\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$, $655\#\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$, $1139\#\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$, and $1488\#\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$ corresponding to P1, P2, P3, and P4 episodes, respectively, which indeed was relative lower than that in polluted urban areas (Table S4). Moreover, the concentration of aerosol load measured at high altitude is lower than that on the ground (Varghese et al., 2016). The parameter k indicates the nature of the particles in terms of particle activation and takes values from 0.3 to 1.2, depending on the site-specific aerosol characteristics (Rejano et al., 2021). The values of k were 0.45, 0.67, 0.71, and 0.35 in the four periods in T2, respectively, which fell within the range proposed by previous studies (Hegg et al., 1991; Rejano et al., 2021).

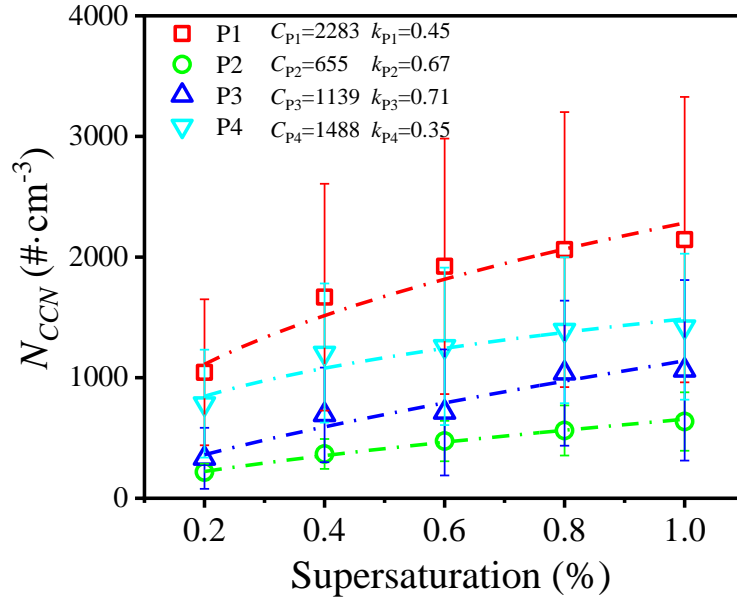


Figure 7 Variation of CCN number concentrations from 0.2 to 1.0% supersaturations on Mt. Hua.

It could be found from the two parameters that the C fitted from N_{CCN} was in the order of $P1 > P4 > P3 > P2$, implying that the pollution caused by aerosols in P1 episode was the most serious, while in P2 episode was the least. The lower k value in P1 and P4 episodes indicated that the fitted CCN spectrum was relatively flat, and it could be inferred that the aerosol population dominated by hygroscopic or big aerosol particles in these two episodes. Through the PNSD and hygroscopicity parameter, it can be found that the higher hygroscopicity parameter was displayed in P1 episode, while the larger particle size of aerosols was expressed in P4 episode. On the contrary, the larger k value in P2 and P3 episodes indicated that the fitted CCN spectrum is steep, which were related to hydrophobic or ultrafine particles in these two episodes. The larger k value was consistent with the small aerosol particles in P2 episode, while the less hygroscopicity was for P3 episode.

3.5 Predictions of N_{CCN} from PNSD measurements

Finally, the activation number concentration based on the average hygroscopicity parameter is compared with the measured number concentration to verify whether the average value can represent the hygroscopicity of Alpine aerosol. The $N_{CCN}(PNSD)$ was calculated by the integral of the number concentration from critical particle diameter to the maximum particle diameter in the PNSD spectrum. The correlation and linear slope between the calculated $N_{CCN}(PNSD)$ and the measured N_{CCN} are shown in Figure 8.

When the predicted N_{CCN} was higher than the measured one, the average κ value calculated by PNSD spectrum will be higher than the actual κ . That is, when the average calculated κ value was greater than the actual one, the number concentration of the activated particle was overestimated by PNSD spectrum. On the contrary, the number concentration of activated particles will be underestimated. Even if the average value was used to recalculate the number of activated particles, the concentration will be overestimated or underestimated. For example, it was slightly underestimated by 1% for 0.2% and 0.4% supersaturation, while for other supersaturations, it was marginally overestimated by 3%, 2%, and 2%, respectively. This small estimation error can be well accepted, so it was determined that the hygroscopicity of aerosol at the top of Mt. Hua was in the range of 0.13-0.22 with the supersaturation from 0.2-1.0%.

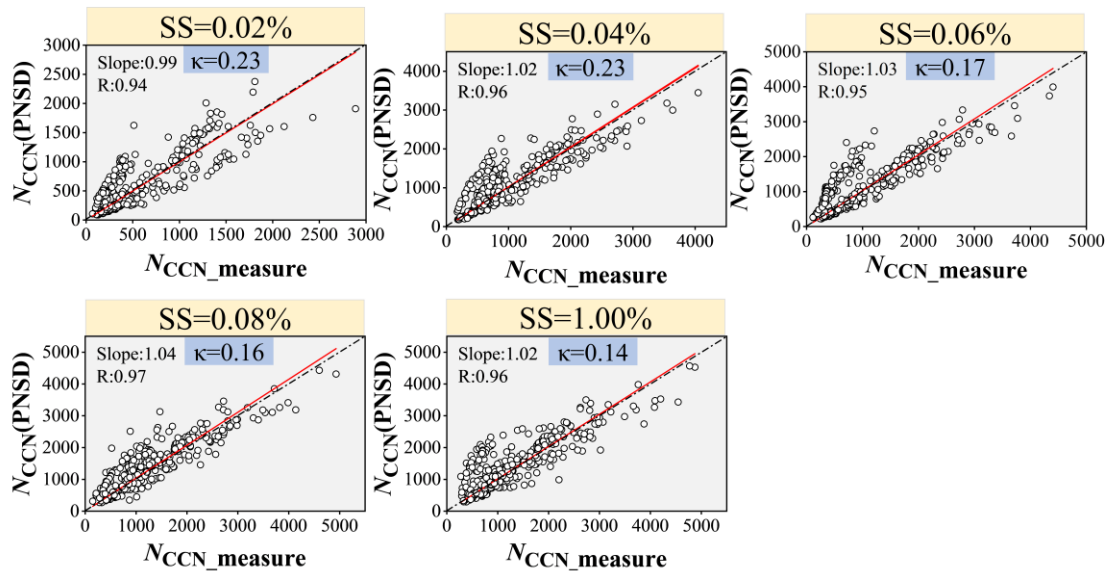


Figure 8 the calculated $N_{CCN}(PNSD)$ vs. the measured N_{CCN} at different supersaturations from 0.2-1.0% with the average κ calculated by Eq. (6). The dot dash line was for 1:1 line and the red solid line was for the fitting curve.

4. Conclusion and Prospect

In this study, observation of PNSD and N_{CCN} were taken on the summit of the west peak of Mt. Hua over the period from Dec. 16th 2020 to Jan. 23rd for winter campaign. The number concentration of nucleation mode type particles with diameter smaller than 30nm erupted frequently from 13:00 to 18:00 p.m. due to the intense photochemistry in relative steady state meteorological conditions with the growth rate of $0.83\text{nm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$

684 lower than that of ground and urban measurement. Its diameter increased from
685 nucleation mode of PSND and then merged into a single modal distribution of particles
686 with larger particle size. In addition, the aerosol gradually increased in the daytime as
687 the source direction of the air mass gradually shifted from northwest to southwest. The
688 distribution characters of aerosol also varied with the meteorological conditions and
689 gaseous pollutants. Moreover, RH has reverse effect on the increased trend of particle
690 diameter and number concentration when it comes to the comparison of temperature
691 influence. And the gale wind blow away the large diameter particles leaving smaller
692 particles behind. On the other hand, SO_2 and NH_3 had a synergistic effect to contribute
693 to the increase of particle diameter and number concentration for the relative larger
694 suspended particle with positive correlation coefficient, but NH_3 had inverse effect on
695 the number concentration for the nucleation mode particles. In addition, the influence
696 of O_3 on the distribution characteristics of particle may be regulated by temperature. In
697 the future research, the formation and growth mechanism of new particles can be
698 accurately obtained through in-depth analysis of the chemical components of particles.

699 The load of N_{CCN} was lower on Mt. Hua compared to other regions such as urban and
700 heavy polluted area. And with the increase of supersaturation, more and more particles
701 with smaller diameter were acted as CCN to be activated into droplets. Furthermore,
702 the explosive increase of the nucleation mode particle and smaller Aitken mode
703 particles can not act as CCN to be activated into droplets, but they have the potential to
704 adsorb or absorb the polluted gaseous to promote the growth conversion into CCN,
705 whose variation trend of the diurnal activated concentration is consistent with that of
706 aerosol. In addition, the larger (P4) or more hygroscopic (P1) particles presented a small
707 k value for the flat CCN spectra with the variation of supersaturation, while the ultrafine
708 (P2) or hydrophobic (P3) particles presented a relative larger k value for the steep CCN
709 spectra. Still further, hygroscopicity parameters, which may be affected by more
710 insoluble substances or organic components dissolved in droplets due to the gradual
711 shift of air mass source from northwest to southwest, show a downward trend with the
712 increase of supersaturation. Ultimately, with the small deviation between the calculated
713 from PSND and the measured N_{CCN} , it can be inferred undoubtedly that the average

hygroscopicity parameter of particles on Mt. Hua decreases from 0.22 to 0.13 with the supersaturation from 0.2 to 1.0%. Thus, the interaction between aerosol and cloud can be estimated more accurately than that on ground measurement and the uncertainty of indirect effect will be shrunked than ever before.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this study

Open Research

Data Availability Statement

Datasets for this research are included in this paper (and its supplementary information files): The ERA5 reanalysis data used for boundary layer height and surface net solar radiation in supplementary information file are available on the website of <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-means?tab=form> (Bell et al., 2021; Hersbach et al., 2020). HYSPLIT model can run online from NOAA Air Resources Laboratory website (https://www.ready.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT_traj.php) without register (Rolph et al., 2017; Stein et al., 2015). Data presented in this paper (and its supplementary information files) are freely accessible from the following link: <https://zenodo.org/record/62476664#.YmIKjoVByUk>

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