



1 High Frequency of Urban New Particle Formation on the Tibetan 2 Plateau: Quantifying Formation Rates, Growth Rates, and CCN 3 Production

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16 Abstract

17 New particle formation (NPF) strongly influences aerosol number size distributions and cloud condensation nuclei (CCN),
18 yet its characteristics and climatic relevance in high-altitude urban environments over the Tibetan Plateau (TP) remain
19 poorly constrained. We conducted in situ observations at Tibet University in Lhasa during the monsoon and pre-monsoon
20 seasons. NPF event frequencies were 86.2 % during the monsoon season and 55.1 % during the pre-monsoon period.
21 Observation days were classified into four types (Class I, Class II, Undefined, and Non-Event) based on the evolution of
22 particle number size distribution (PNSD) and modal development. Seasonal comparisons indicate clear differences in the
23 factors associated with NPF: monsoon season NPF was mainly associated with sulfur precursor availability, whereas no
24 single clear controlling factor was evident during the pre-monsoon period. NPF substantially enhanced CCN at TU, with
25 mean concentrations of $3351 \pm 1919 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ on Class I days, $1540.2 \pm 872 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ on Class II days, $880.5 \pm 374 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ on
26 Undefined days, and $1278.1 \pm 667 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ on Non-Event days. The impact of NPF on CCN depends not only on nucleation,
27 but also on the continued growth and survival of newly formed particles. This study provides new insights into urban NPF
28 characteristics and the contribution of NPF to CCN on the TP, improving our understanding of aerosol–climate interactions
29 in high-altitude urban environments.



30 1 Introduction

31 The Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) highlights that the aerosol climatic
32 effect is a major source of uncertainty in climate change assessment, primarily attributed to the spatio-temporal variability of
33 aerosol concentration and size distribution (Arias et al., 2021). New Particle Formation (NPF) and subsequent particle
34 growth significantly alter aerosol concentration, size distribution, and Cloud Condensation Nuclei (CCN) concentration
35 (Hong et al., 2023). Endowed with unique geographical and atmospheric conditions, the Tibetan Plateau (TP) hosts aerosols
36 that are prone to long-distance transport. This capability allows TP aerosols to modify atmospheric concentration and cloud
37 properties along their path more readily than those in low-altitude regions, thereby impacting both regional atmospheric
38 environment and global climate (Hu et al., 2024). Thus, in-depth exploration of NPF patterns over the TP is crucial for
39 accurately evaluating TP aerosol impact on the global atmosphere and climate.

40 Research on NPF in the TP background atmosphere is extensive, leading to a comprehensive understanding of its
41 environmental and climatic effects. For instance, a study at the National Atmospheric Background Monitoring Sub-station
42 on Moshi Daban Mountain (3295 m a.s.l.) in Menyuan, Qinghai Province (Gao et al., 2025), found that NPF events occurred
43 on approximately 80 % of the observation days. These events typically started in the morning, with aerosol particle sizes
44 rapidly growing from approximately 5 nm to 150 nm, exhibiting the characteristic "banana-shape" curve. Intensive
45 measurements at Nam Co station (4730 m a.s.l.) in the central TP (Tang et al., 2023) explored NPF frequency and
46 mechanisms, revealing significant seasonal differences: approximately 15 % in the pre-monsoon season but up to 80 %
47 during the summer monsoon. Comprehensive analysis of the CS, gaseous precursors, and meteorological factors, combined
48 with SO₂ and Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs) simulations, concluded that organics-involved condensation is the
49 dominant NPF mechanism, with CS and gaseous sulfuric acid having negligible influence. Furthermore, the high NPF
50 frequency during the summer monsoon season may be closely linked to frequent southerly and south-westerly airflow.
51 Focusing on the south-eastern TP (Lai et al., 2024), research investigated NPF jointly driven by anthropogenic and biogenic
52 factors. Using field measurements and a chemical transport model, they found frequent NPF events on clear-sky days during
53 the pre-monsoon season, contributing significantly to CCN concentration. Observations confirmed that Highly Oxygenated
54 Organic Molecules (HOM_s) from monoterpene oxidation participate in the nucleation process in this region. (Liu et al., 2024)
55 further showed that the frequent NPF at high-altitude sites in the south-eastern TP is mainly driven by HOMs, including
56 products from monoterpene, and unexpectedly, sesquiterpenes and diterpenes oxidation. Moreover, anthropogenic NO_x
57 emissions were found to play a crucial regulatory role in particle nucleation. Overall, NPF frequency is high in the TP
58 background atmosphere, and its formation is closely related to temperature, relative humidity, and chemical precursor
59 concentrations.

60 Aerosols generated by NPF in the TP background atmosphere can contribute up to half of the total atmospheric aerosol
61 number concentration and significantly enhance CCN concentration. A study at the world's highest station, Chacaltaya (Rose
62 et al., 2017), analysed 61 % of NPF events, finding they led to increased CCN number concentration, with the probability



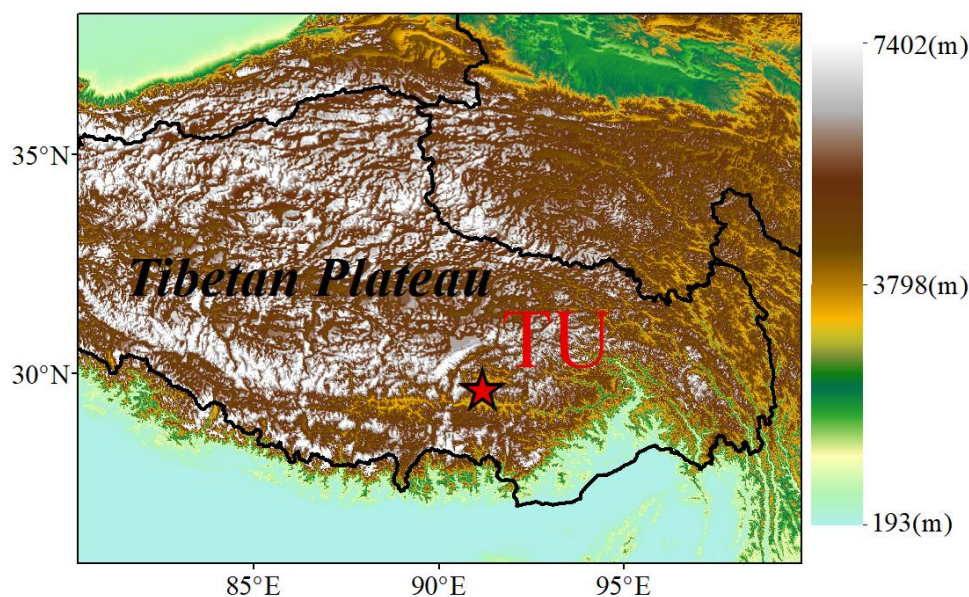
63 reaching 79 % during the wet season due to faster particle growth. The NPF impact on CCN concentration varies seasonally,
64 causing CCN to increase by a factor of 1.54 and 1.36 in spring and winter, respectively. During the summer monsoon season,
65 at a supersaturation of 1.2 %, aerosol number concentration and CCN concentration surged by a factor of 2 and 0.6,
66 respectively, compared to the pre-monsoon season. Furthermore, considering that small particles formed during NPF may
67 continue to grow to CCN activation size over several days, the potential CCN number during the monsoon season may far
68 exceed instantaneous local measurements (Tang et al., 2023). Comparative observations by Shang et al. (2022) indicated that
69 the NPF contribution to total aerosol and CCN concentrations is more significant in the clean atmosphere than that of the
70 polluted atmosphere.

71 Despite the extensive work summarized above, our understanding of new-particle formation over the TP remains strongly
72 biased toward remote background sites. The urban TP atmosphere—characterised by markedly stronger primary emissions
73 and elevated concentrations of both SO₂ and NO_x—has, so far, received no systematic exploration of its NPF characteristics,
74 governing mechanisms, or quantitative contribution to CCN. This knowledge gap hampers the accurate representation of
75 aerosol sources in regional climate models and precludes a full assessment of the role of urban NPF over the TP in
76 continental CCN budgets. To fill this gap, we carried out seasonal-scale particle number size distribution (PNSD)
77 measurements in Lhasa (3650 m a.s.l.), a high-altitude urban environment on the Tibetan Plateau, during the pre-monsoon
78 and monsoon seasons. The specific aims are (i) to establish an event classification and to quantify the frequency and
79 intensity of urban NPF, (ii) to elucidate the seasonal differences in precursor–meteorology interactions driving NPF, and (iii)
80 to evaluate the instantaneous and seasonal enhancement of CCN concentrations attributable to newly formed particles at the
81 TP urban environment. The observational methodology is described in Section 2, results and discussions are presented in
82 Section 3, and conclusions together with implications for aerosol–climate interactions are summarized in the last Section.

83 **2 Methods**

84 **2.1 Sampling sites**

85 As shown in Fig. 1, the study site is located at Tibet University (TU, 29 °38 ' N, 91 °10 ' E; 3650 m a.s.l.) in Lhasa,
86 which lies in the south-central TP. Lhasa serves as the capital of the Tibet Autonomous Region and its political, economic,
87 and cultural hub. As one of the largest urban centers on the TP, it is a typical high-altitude city where aerosols are
88 predominantly driven by local sources, including traffic emissions, residential coal/biomass combustion, construction
89 activities, and dust resuspension (Zhao et al., 2022). The site is situated in a broad river valley surrounded by mountains with
90 elevations up to 5500 m a.s.l. Its climate is strongly influenced by the Asian Summer Monsoon and the East Asian Winter
91 Monsoon, with spring and autumn functioning as transitional seasons between these two climate systems (Li et al., 2025). In
92 situ measurements were conducted during two periods: the monsoon period (9 October–10 November 2024) and the pre-
93 monsoon period (25 March–22 April 2025).



94

95 **Figure 1: Location and topography of the observation site. Color shading denotes elevation (unit: m).**

96 **2.2 Instrumentation**

97 In this study, a comprehensive Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS) system was employed to measure the PNSD from 3
98 to 800 nm with a 5-minute time resolution. This system consisted of two separate instruments from TSI Inc. A nanoparticle
99 SMPS (TSI, Model 3087) was used to measure particles in the size range of 3 to 40 nm, while a standard SMPS (TSI, Model
100 3080) measured particles from 20 to 800 nm. The two datasets were then merged to create a complete and continuous PNSD.
101 To ensure consistent and accurate measurements, the instruments were housed in a temperature-controlled container
102 maintained at 25 °C. This setup was located on the rooftop of a campus building, with the aerosol inlet positioned
103 approximately 20 meters above ground level. This elevated sampling height was chosen to minimize the influence of
104 localized ground-level emission sources like traffic exhaust and suspended road dust. Furthermore, a silicon diffusion dryer
105 was placed upstream of the SMPSs to reduce the relative humidity of the sampled air to below 40 %, preventing particle
106 growth from water vapour condensation. Ambient aerosols were sampled through a short, conductive tube with minimal
107 bends to reduce size-dependent diffusion losses. All SMPS data underwent rigorous corrections for these diffusion losses
108 and for multiple charging effects to ensure the reliability of the measured particle number concentrations. We also utilized
109 meteorological data from an on-site automatic weather station, which provided essential parameters including temperature
110 (T), relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD), Sulfur Dioxide (SO₂), Nitrogen Dioxide (NO₂), and
111 Ozone (O₃) for a comprehensive analysis of the atmospheric conditions.



112 2.3 Calculation of variables characterizing new particle formation

113 The Condensation Sink (CS, unit: s^{-1}) is utilized in this study as a core parameter to quantify the regulating effect of pre-
114 existing aerosols on condensable vapors (Kerminen et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2021). Its calculation is based on the kinetic
115 theory of dilute gases and assumes sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) as the characteristic condensable substance (Dal Maso, 2005). The
116 calculation process utilizes measured PNSD data and incorporates the influence of ambient temperature (T) and pressure (P).
117 First, the diffusion coefficient of sulfuric acid vapor in the air ($D_{x,air}$) is calculated using an empirical formula based on T and
118 P. Subsequently, the mean free path of the condensable vapor (λ) is calculated using the molar mass of sulfuric acid ($M_x =$
119 98.08 g/mol). Based on λ and the size-resolved particle radius (R_i), the Knudsen number ($Kn_i = \lambda/R_i$) is determined. To
120 correct the condensation rate from the continuous regime to the transition and free molecular regimes, the transition regime
121 correction factor (β) is introduced (Dinoi et al., 2021):

$$122 \quad \beta = \frac{Kn + 1}{0.377Kn + 1 + \frac{4}{3\alpha}(Kn^2 + Kn)} \quad (1)$$

123 Here, the sticking coefficient (α) is set to 1.0. Finally, the size-resolved condensation sink (CSi) is determined by
124 $4\pi \cdot D_{x,air} \cdot R_i \cdot \beta_i \cdot n_i$, and the total CS value is quantitatively calculated by numerically integrating CSi over all particle size
125 ranges.

$$126 \quad CS = 2\pi D \int_0^\infty d_p \beta_m(d_p) \times n(d_p) dd_p = 2\pi D \sum_i \beta_i d_{pi} N_i \quad (2)$$

127 The Coagulation Sink (CoagS, unit: s^{-1}) is another key parameter in atmospheric aerosol dynamics, quantifying the
128 efficiency of pre-existing particles (scavenger particles) in removing specific size-range target particles from the system via
129 the coagulation mechanism (Kulmala et al., 2001). Similar to CS, CoagS is calculated through PNSD integration.

$$130 \quad CoagS_{d_p} = \int K(d_p, d_p) n(d_p) dd_p \cong \sum_{d_p'=d_p}^{d_p'=\max} K(d_p, d_p) N_{d_p'} \quad (3)$$

131 GR, defined as the rate at which the geometric mean diameter of nucleation mode particles increases from dp_1 to dp_2 , was
132 calculated using the procedure outlined by (Kulmala et al., 2012).

$$133 \quad GR = \frac{\Delta d_p}{\Delta t} = \frac{d_{p2} - d_{p1}}{t_2 - t_1} \quad (4)$$

134 To quantify the intensity of NPF events, we calculated the particle formation rate J (i.e., the rate of aerosol particle formation
135 at a specific size) following the method described by (Baalbaki et al., 2021), which is derived from rearranging the equation
136 governing the time evolution of particle number concentration (Kulmala et al., 2012). Specifically, J was computed for two
137 size bins (dp): 3 nm (J_3), and 7 nm (J_7), with the upper size limits of the corresponding bins set to 7 nm and 20 nm,
138 respectively. The growth rate term in the equation (Eq. 5) was defined as the average of GR measurements for total particles;
139 this GR value was assumed constant during NPF events and set to zero outside the event duration or in non-event periods.
140 The formation rate J_{dp} is expressed as:



141
$$J_{d_p} = \frac{dN_{d_p}}{dt} + CoagS_{d_p} \cdot N_{d_p} + \frac{GR}{\Delta d_p} \cdot N_{d_p} \quad (5)$$

142 CCN concentration is quantitatively calculated based on κ -Köhler theory (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). This method aims
143 to determine the number of particles that can be activated at a specific supersaturation (S).

144
$$A = \frac{4\sigma_{s/a} M_w}{RT\rho_w} \quad (6)$$

145
$$\kappa = \frac{4A^3}{27D_c^3 \ln^2 S_c} \quad (7)$$

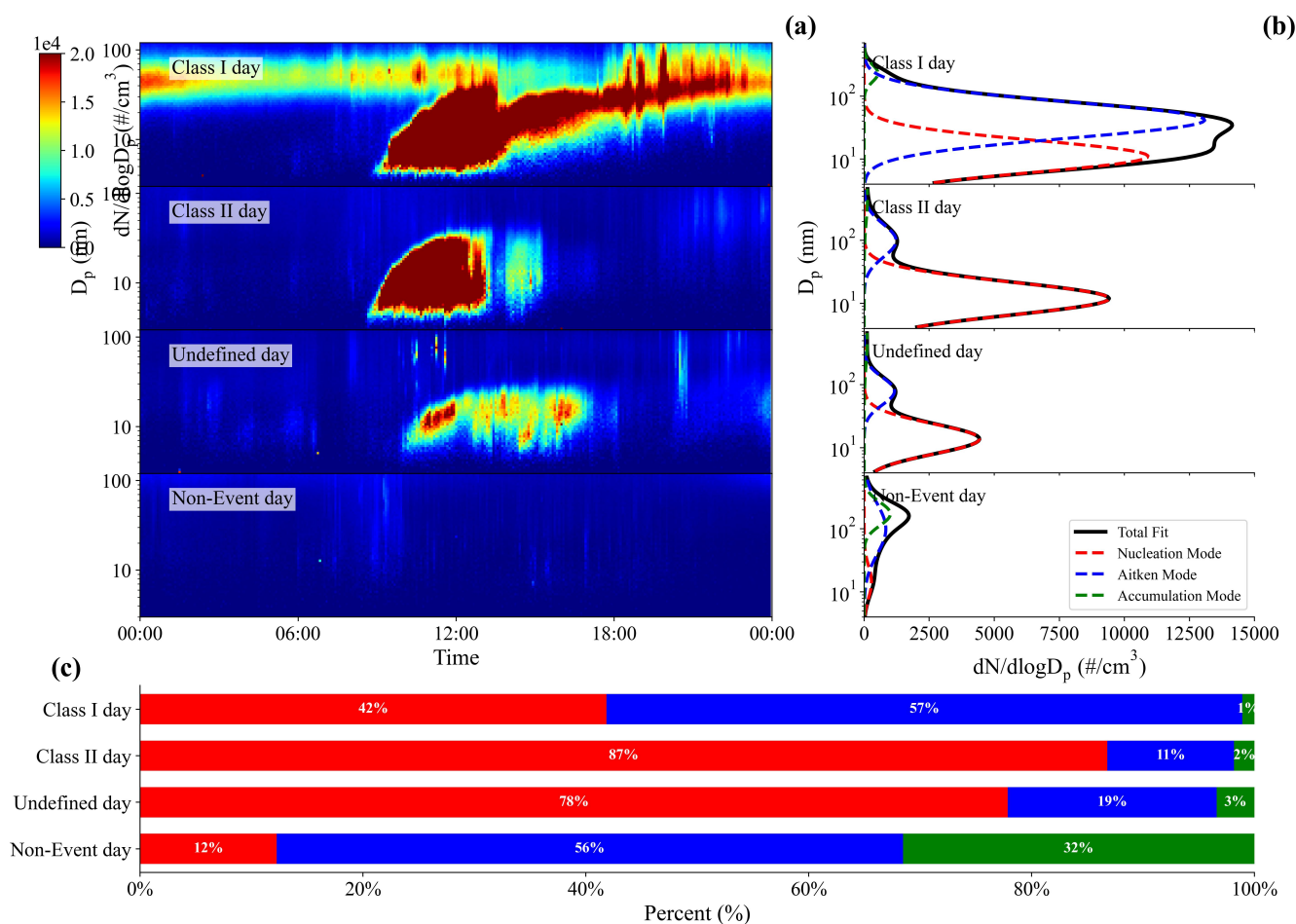
146 2.4 NPF Event Classification

147 In this study, atmospheric particles were divided into three diameter modes: the Nucleation Mode (< 25 nm), the Aitken
148 Mode (25–100 nm), and the Accumulation Mode (> 100 nm) (Wang et al., 2022; Hussein et al., 2020; Kalkavouras et al.,
149 2021; Shen et al., 2022). Event classification was based on the methodology described by Dal Maso (Dal Maso, 2005),
150 which has been widely applied in previous studies of NPF (Gao et al., 2025; Cramer et al., 2026; Lampilahti et al., 2025;
151 Casans et al., 2025). Through visual inspection of the PNSD, the observation days were categorized into four event types.
152 Specifically, NPF days were divided into two main categories: Class I days and Class II days. These types include Class I
153 days (clear and persistent strong events), Class II days (clear but discontinuous moderate events), Undefined days (weak or
154 incomplete NPF characteristics), and Non-Event days (no observable particle formation or growth). Fig. S1–4 presents the
155 daily PNSD for different event types.

156 Fig. 2a illustrates typical examples of the diurnal evolution of the NPF event categories. On Class I days, the 3 nm particle
157 number concentration began to increase strongly around 09:00, and the mode diameter steadily grew from the Nucleation
158 Mode to the Aitken Mode, persisting until 0:00, displaying the classic “banana shape”. On Class II days, the number
159 concentration also began to increase around 09:00, but the growth of the mode diameter only lasted for a few hours, peaking
160 around 13:00. On Undefined days, although an increase in the number concentration of the Nucleation Mode was observed
161 in the morning, the mode diameter remained in the Nucleation Mode between 09:00 and 13:00 without significant growth.
162 On Non-Event days, neither an increase in Nucleation Mode number concentration nor growth into the Aitken Mode was
163 observed. Figure 2c presents a stacked percentage bar chart that quantifies the relative number contributions of nucleation,
164 Aitken, and accumulation modes to the total particle number concentration across these four classified NPF event types. On
165 Class I days, nucleation mode particles account for 42 % of the total number concentration, while Aitken mode particles
166 dominate with a 57 % contribution, and accumulation mode particles contribute a mere 1 %, indicating a scenario where
167 freshly formed nucleation-mode particles undergo rapid growth into the Aitken mode. For Class II days, the nucleation mode
168 overwhelmingly dominates, representing 87 % of the total particle number, with Aitken and accumulation modes
169 contributing only 11 % and 2 %, respectively, which reflects relatively inefficient particle growth after initial formation.



170 Undefined days exhibit a similar modal contribution pattern to Class II days, with nucleation mode accounting for 78 %,
 171 Aitken mode for 19 %, and accumulation mode for 3 %, suggesting some uncertainty in the particle growth process. In
 172 contrast, Non-Event days show a more balanced contribution from the three modes, with nucleation mode at 12 %, Aitken
 173 mode at 56 %, and accumulation mode at 32 %, reflecting the steady-state particle size distribution of the background
 174 atmosphere in the absence of active NPF events. Collectively, this chart highlights the distinct modal contribution
 175 characteristics of different NPF event types, providing critical statistical insights into the atmospheric physicochemical
 176 processes governing new particle formation and growth.



177

178 **Figure 2: (a) Particle number size distribution evolution, (b) averaged modal fitting, and (c) relative number contributions for four**
 179 **classified NPF event types.**

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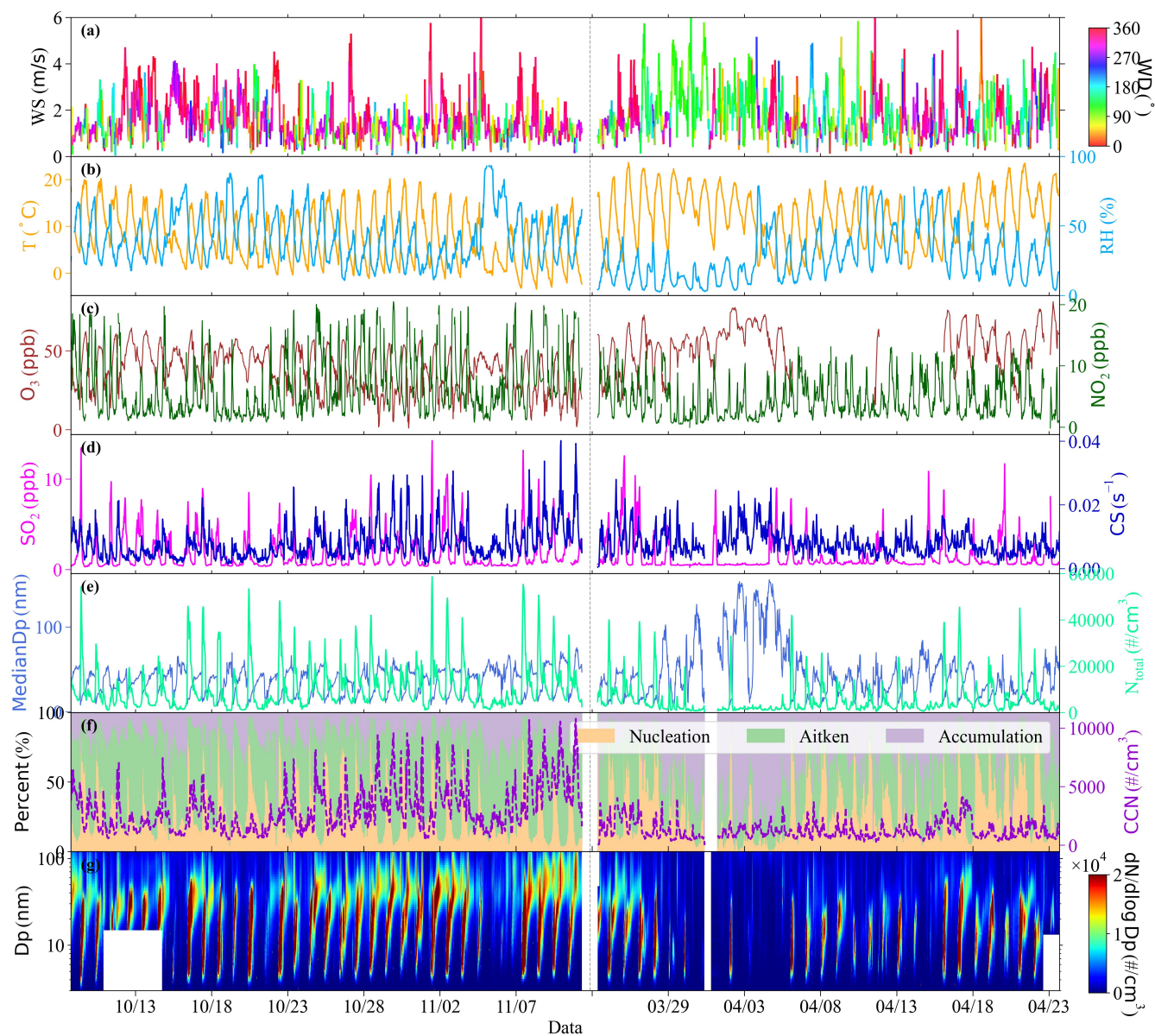


181 3 Results and discussion

182 3.1 Overview of the field observations

183 Meteorological conditions and gaseous pollutants exhibited strong short-term fluctuations and clear diurnal variability during
184 both measurement periods. As shown in Fig. 3a–b, wind speed/wind direction and RH varied substantially on synoptic and
185 diurnal timescales. The monsoon period was characterized by higher RH (41.60 ± 17.78 %) than the pre-monsoon period
186 (27.46 ± 18.23 %). Wind speeds were comparable between the two periods (1.57 ± 0.92 m s⁻¹ in the monsoon period and
187 1.87 ± 1.07 m s⁻¹ in the pre-monsoon period), indicating predominantly low-to-moderate ventilation conditions that may
188 facilitate episodic accumulation of precursors and aerosols. Figure 3c–d presents the temporal evolution of SO₂, CS, O₃, and
189 NO₂. O₃ was generally higher during the pre-monsoon period (52.47 ± 14.11 ppb) than during the monsoon period ($37.87 \pm$
190 12.75 ppb), suggesting a more oxidizing background in the pre-monsoon period. In contrast, SO₂ and NO₂ showed
191 intermittent spikes in both seasons, implying episodic impacts from transport and/or local emissions. Notably, the CS
192 remained similar across seasons (0.0079 ± 0.0053 s⁻¹ in the monsoon period and 0.0081 ± 0.0038 s⁻¹ in the pre-monsoon
193 period), indicating that the seasonal contrast in NPF occurrence is unlikely driven solely by differences in the pre-existing
194 particle sink.

195 NPF events were frequently observed at the TU site and were associated with pronounced seasonal differences in PNSD and
196 estimated CCN concentrations. In total, 41 NPF events were identified during the two measurement periods, including 21
197 Class I event days and 20 Class II event days, in addition to 10 undefined days and 7 non-event days. Based on Fig. 3g, NPF
198 occurrence displayed a marked seasonal contrast, with NPF observed on 86.2 % of the measurement days during the
199 monsoon period but only on 55.1 % during the pre-monsoon period. Consistent with this contrast, Fig. 3e shows that the
200 monsoon period exhibited a substantially higher total particle number concentration ($N_{3-700} = 10541 \pm 9771$ cm⁻³) than the
201 pre-monsoon period (5335 ± 6886 cm⁻³), while the median particle diameter (median D_p) was smaller in the monsoon period
202 (36.55 ± 13.99 nm) than in the pre-monsoon period (45.38 ± 33.60 nm), indicating a stronger contribution from smaller
203 particles during the monsoon period. Figure 3f further presents the estimated CCN concentrations and the fractional
204 contributions from different modes. CCN levels were higher during the monsoon period (2812.99 ± 1665.10 cm⁻³),
205 accompanied by more frequent and more persistent enhancements in the nucleation- and Aitken-mode fractions and episodic
206 reductions in the accumulation-mode fraction, suggesting a shift of the particle population toward the small-to-intermediate
207 size range. In contrast, the pre-monsoon period showed lower CCN (1152.05 ± 608.91 cm⁻³), weaker and less persistent
208 increases in the nucleation- and Aitken-mode fractions, and a more dominant background contribution from the
209 accumulation mode. Together, these observations highlight strong seasonal modulation of particle sources and CCN-relevant
210 size structure at the TU site and provide context for the process-based analysis in the following sections.



211

212 **Figure 3: Time series of (a) wind speed and wind direction, (b) ambient temperature and relative humidity, (c) O₃ concentration**
 213 **and NO₂ concentration, (d) SO₂ concentration and Condensation Sink, (e) median particle diameter and particle number**
 214 **concentration in the size range of 3–700 nm, (f) CCN concentration and percentage contributions of the nucleation mode, Aitken**
 215 **mode, and accumulation mode, (g) PNSD during the pre-monsoon and monsoon periods.**

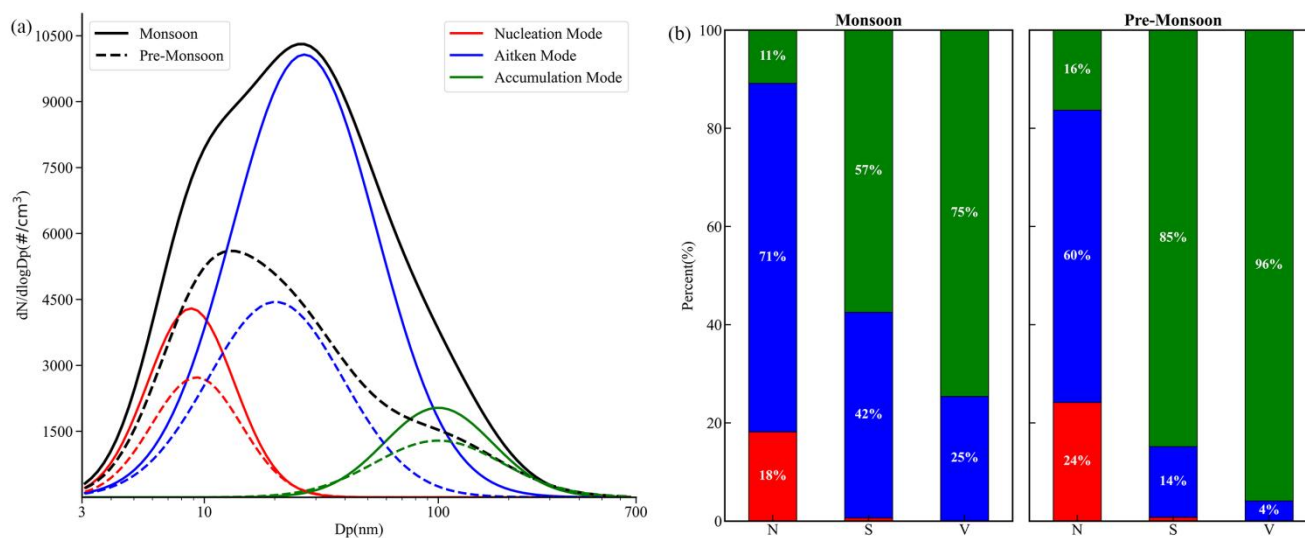


216 **3.2 PNSD and number concentration responses**

217 **3.2.1 Seasonal mean PNSD and modal contributions**

218 Seasonal mean PNSD and modal contributions reveal a distinct background size structure and surface/volume partitioning
 219 between the monsoon and pre-monsoon periods. Figure 4a shows that the seasonal mean PNSD at the TU site is typically
 220 multimodal, reflecting the combined influences of secondary particle production, growth, and the pre-existing aerosol
 221 population. A pronounced seasonal contrast is evident in the total number concentration: the mean N_{3-700} during the monsoon
 222 period ($10541 \pm 9771 \text{ # cm}^{-3}$) was 1.98 times higher than that during the pre-monsoon period ($5335 \pm 6886 \text{ # cm}^{-3}$) (Fig. 4a).
 223 In terms of modal partitioning, Fig. 4b indicates that while the Aitken mode dominates number concentration in both periods,
 224 the surface area and volume are strongly controlled by the accumulation mode in the pre-monsoon period, accounting for
 225 85 % (surface area) and 96 % (volume). In contrast, during the monsoon period the Aitken mode contributes substantially
 226 more to surface area (42 %) and volume (25 %) than in the pre-monsoon period (14 % and 4 %, respectively), consistent
 227 with a particle population shifted toward smaller-to-intermediate sizes. These seasonal differences provide a baseline for
 228 interpreting event-day diurnal changes and their implications for CCN-relevant size fractions.

229



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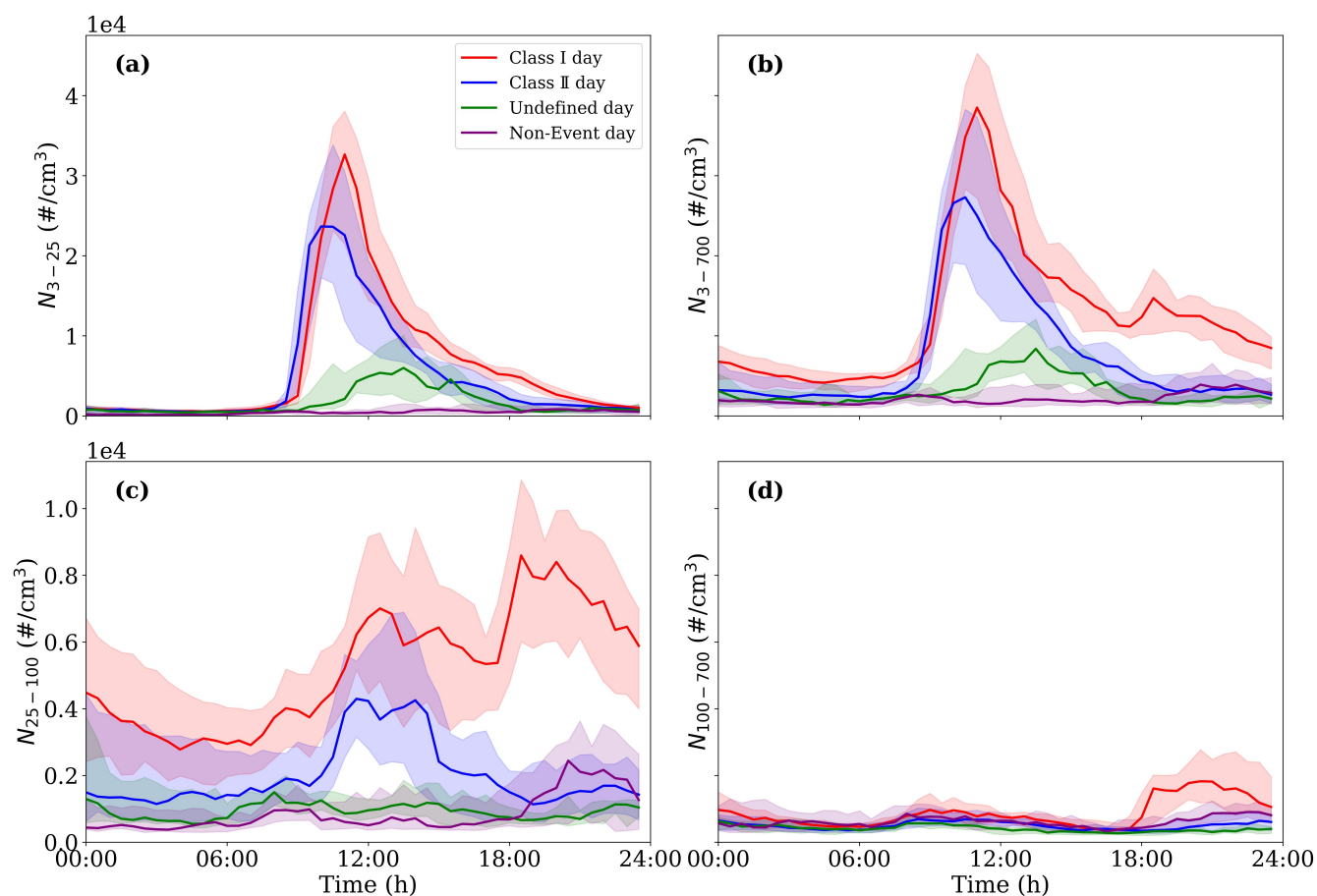
231 **Figure 4: (a) Particle number size distribution characteristics and (b) modal contributions to number (N), surface area (S), and**
 232 **volume (V) distributions during monsoon and pre-monsoon periods.**

233 **3.2.2 Diurnal variations of size-segregated number concentrations**

234 Event-day diurnal profiles show a clear sequence from daytime ultrafine particle production to enhanced Aitken-mode
 235 concentrations, whereas non-event days exhibit weaker and less structured variability. Figure 5 summarizes diurnal profiles
 236 of particle number concentrations for the nucleation (N_{3-25}), Aitken (N_{25-100}), accumulation ($N_{100-700}$), and total (N_{3-700}) size



237 ranges across different day types. The nucleation-mode number concentration exhibits a sharp, transient noon-time
 238 maximum (12:00 local time) across all categories, followed by a rapid decline (Fig. 5a). In contrast, the Aitken mode
 239 displays strong category dependence: Class I days show a pronounced bimodal pattern with a primary peak around 12:00 and
 240 a secondary peak around 19:00 (with a weaker perturbation near 15:00), whereas Class II, Undefined, and Non-Event days
 241 are largely unimodal with a single noon-time peak (Fig. 5c). The accumulation mode follows a similar but weaker pattern
 242 (Fig. 5d), and the total number concentration mirrors the nucleation-mode noon peak while retaining a distinct evening
 243 enhancement on Class I days, consistent with sustained growth and modal evolution into the Aitken range (Fig. 5b). These
 244 diurnal statistics indicate that the impact of NPF on the size distribution depends not only on daytime particle production, but
 245 also on the persistence of growth into the Aitken mode.



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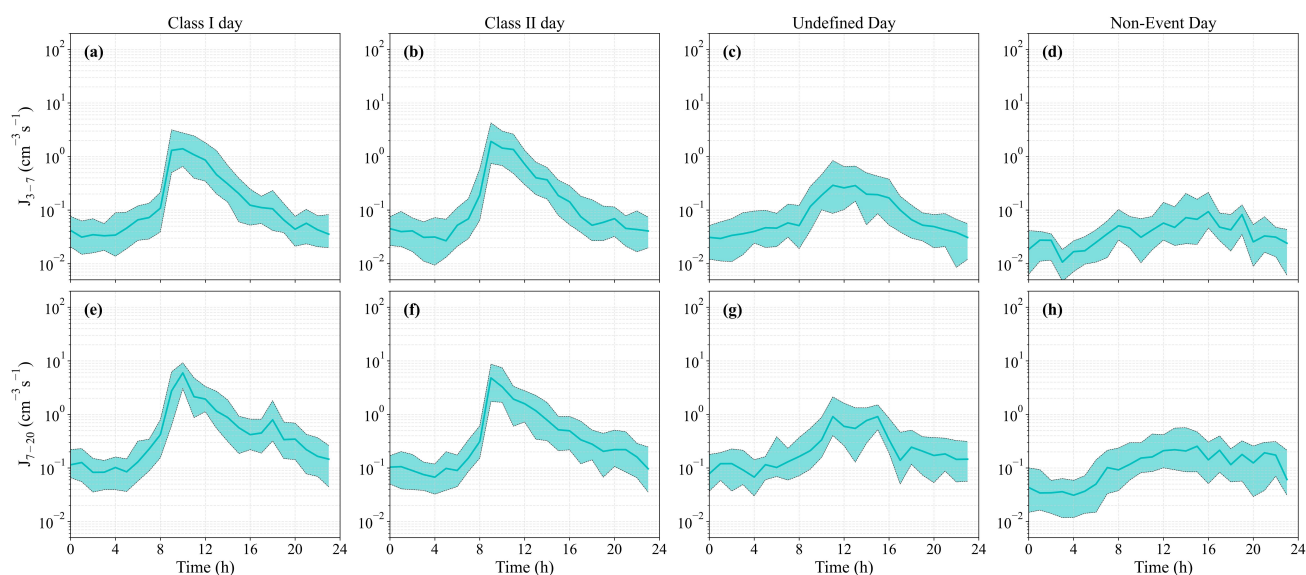
247 **Figure 5: Diurnal variation of aerosol number concentrations ($\# \text{ cm}^{-3}$) at the size ranges of (a) 3–25 nm, (b) 3–700 nm, (c) 25–100**
 248 **nm, and (d) 100–700 nm, during Class I day, Class II day, Undefined day, and Non-Event day. Shaded areas represent the**
 249 **interquartile range (25th to 75th percentiles).**



250 3.3 Factors controlling the formation and development of NPF events

251 3.3.1 Formation and growth characteristics

252 The formation and growth characteristics of NPF were quantified using particle formation rates (J) and growth rates (GR),
 253 and the diurnal evolution of formation rates in the 3–7 nm and 7–20 nm size ranges is summarized in Fig. 6. On NPF days,
 254 both Class I and Class II events exhibit pronounced daytime increases in (J_{3-7}), consistent with active photochemically
 255 driven particle production during the morning to midday period, whereas Non-Event days show substantially weaker
 256 formation. Averaged over the daytime period (08:00–16:59), the mean formation rates in the initial nucleation stage (3–7 nm)
 257 were $1.13 \pm 1.60 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Class I events and $1.15 \pm 1.69 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Class II events, indicating strong daytime particle
 258 production for both event classes. These values are close to results from the Nam Co station (J_4 : $1.15 \pm 0.58 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$) (Tang
 259 et al., 2023) and the Mt. Yulong station (J_3 : $1.18 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$) (Shang et al., 2018). As particles evolved into the 7–20 nm range,
 260 the formation rate (J_{7-20}) further intensified to approximately $3.6 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, remaining within the reasonable range established
 261 by high-altitude environmental observations. Regarding growth kinetics, the observed GR_{3-7} ($2.31\text{--}3.16 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$) and GR_{7-20}
 262 ($2.97\text{--}3.51 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$) were comparable to values at Nam Co (GR_{4-25} : $4.0 \pm 1.2 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$) and Mt. Yulong (3.2 nm h^{-1}),
 263 significantly exceeding those at the NCO-P station ($1.18 \pm 0.7 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$) (Venzac et al., 2008) and Mt. Daban (2.0 nm h^{-1}) (Du
 264 et al., 2015). In summary, the J and GR values at TU are well within the ranges reported for global high-altitude
 265 environments, indicating that the site experiences characteristic high-altitude NPF with strong daytime formation and
 266 sufficiently rapid growth to promote downstream enhancement of Aitken-mode number concentrations.



267
 268 **Figure 6: Diurnal variations of the formation rates J_3 during (a) Class I day, (b) Class II day, (c) Undefined day, and (d) Non-**
 269 **Event day periods. The corresponding diurnal variations of the formation rate J_7 were shown in panels (e), (f), (g), and (h). The**
 270 **shaded areas represent the 25th and 75th percentile boundaries, and the solid lines denote the median values.**



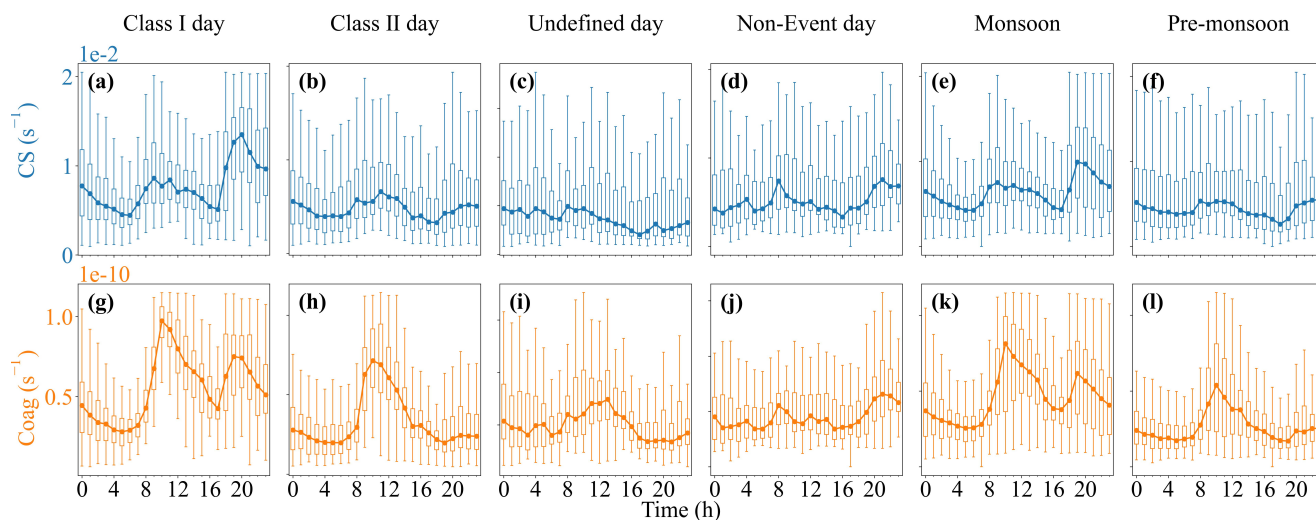
271 3.3.2 Condensation sink and its role

272 CS represents the ability of the pre-existing aerosol population to remove condensable vapors via condensation, while CoagS
273 describes the loss of freshly formed clusters and ultrafine particles through collision and coalescence with larger background
274 particles (Victor et al., 2024). Figure 7 shows the diurnal variations of CS and CoagS for different day types and seasons.
275 Both sink terms exhibit clear diurnal structure and substantial variability, indicating that the removal capacity for vapors and
276 nascent particles can change markedly over the course of a day and between different regimes.

277 Consistent with many studies reporting that NPF tends to be favored under relatively low CS (Cai et al., 2017; Saha et al.,
278 2018; Kalivitis et al., 2019; Kalkavouras et al., 2020; Aktypis et al., 2023), the TU site nevertheless shows that NPF can
279 occur even when CS is not minimal. The mean CS levels ($\pm 1\sigma$) are $0.0079 \pm 0.0044 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Class I days, 0.0060 ± 0.0042
280 s^{-1} for Class II days, $0.0053 \pm 0.0045 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Undefined days, and $0.0064 \pm 0.0044 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Non-Event days (Fig. 7 a–d).
281 Thus, CS on NPF days is slightly higher than that on Non-Event days, and the NPF-day mean CS at TU is higher than values
282 reported for remote plateau background sites in China (Tang et al., 2023), yet lower than those reported for the major urban
283 environment of Beijing (Du et al., 2017), suggesting an intermediate sink environment characteristic of a high-altitude urban
284 setting. Importantly, despite the strong seasonal contrast in NPF frequency, seasonal mean CS is broadly similar between the
285 monsoon ($0.0069 \pm 0.0041 \text{ s}^{-1}$) and pre-monsoon ($0.0062 \pm 0.0047 \text{ s}^{-1}$) periods (Fig. 7e–f), indicating that differences in the
286 pre-existing particle sink are unlikely to be the primary driver of the seasonal contrast in NPF occurrence.

287 In contrast, CoagS shows a stronger separation among day types and seasons. The mean CoagS values are $5.27 \times 10^{-11} \pm$
288 $2.62 \times 10^{-11} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Class I days, $3.66 \times 10^{-11} \pm 2.39 \times 10^{-11} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Class II days, $2.57 \times 10^{-11} \pm 1.53 \times 10^{-11} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for
289 Undefined days, and $2.55 \times 10^{-11} \pm 1.41 \times 10^{-11} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Non-Event days. Seasonally, CoagS is also markedly higher
290 during the monsoon ($4.85 \times 10^{-11} \pm 2.57 \times 10^{-11} \text{ s}^{-1}$) than during the pre-monsoon period ($2.88 \times 10^{-11} \pm 1.93 \times 10^{-11}$
291 s^{-1}). Since CoagS directly reflects the scavenging loss of freshly formed clusters, the elevated monsoon CoagS suggests a
292 stronger survival constraint on nascent particles. However, this constraint did not prevent the higher NPF frequency observed
293 during the monsoon period, implying that enhanced precursor availability and favorable photochemical conditions likely
294 outweighed the increased coagulation loss.

295 Taken together, these results suggest that the occurrence and development of NPF at TU is better interpreted as a
296 competition between source processes and sink processes, rather than being controlled by sink alone. This interpretation is
297 consistent with previous observations that NPF can be observed under moderate sinks when vapor production is sufficiently
298 strong (Zhang et al., 2021; Sellegri et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2022; Baalbaki et al., 2021). In this framework, CoagS provides
299 an additional constraint on whether newly formed clusters can survive long enough to grow into larger sizes, while CS limits
300 the availability of low-volatility vapors required for sustained growth; hence, event intensity and downstream impacts are
301 expected to depend on the joint evolution of formation/growth rates and sinks over the diurnal cycle.



302

303 **Figure 7: Diurnal variations of condensation sink and coagulation sink for different event classifications and seasons.**

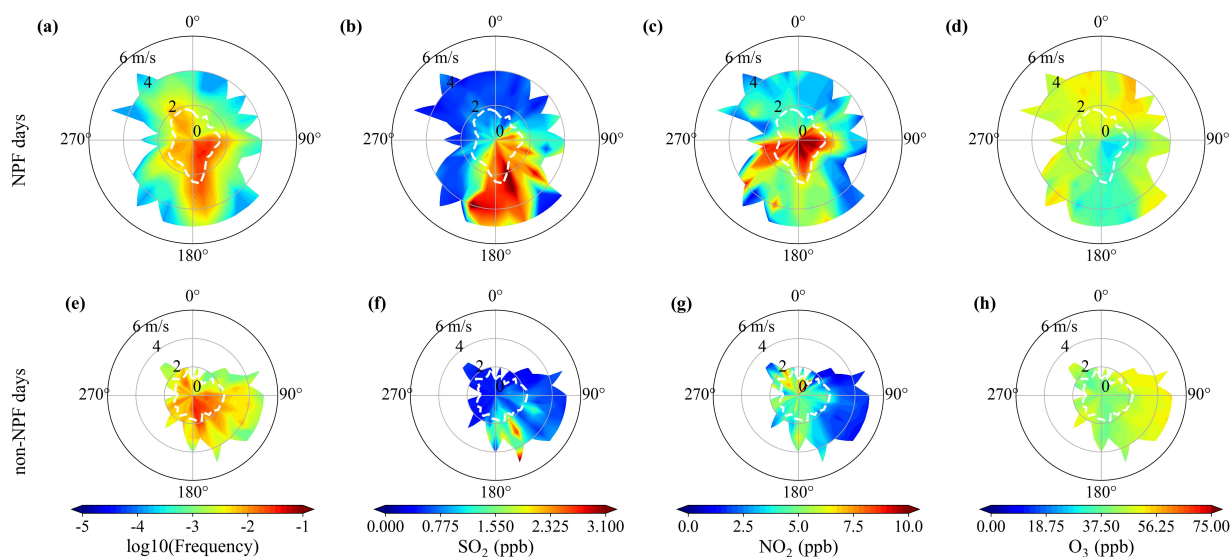
304 **3.3.3 Meteorology and precursor modulation, with transport context**

305 Meteorological conditions during the study period show clear diurnal variability in temperature and relative humidity,
 306 consistent with the strong dependence of NPF on atmospheric state and precursor availability reported in previous studies
 307 (Hakala et al., 2022; Kalkavouras et al., 2020; Kalkavouras et al., 2019; Victor et al., 2024; Singh et al., 2025). The site was
 308 predominantly under clear to partly cloudy conditions with sufficient solar radiation, occasionally interrupted by
 309 precipitation. Notably, an extended rainfall episode occurred from 4 to 6 November during the monsoon period, during
 310 which no NPF events were identified. This is consistent with wet scavenging and suppressed photochemical production of
 311 condensable vapors during precipitation, both of which reduce particle number concentrations and interrupt the NPF process.
 312 To quantify how meteorology and key gaseous precursors are associated with NPF, we compared SO₂, O₃, and NO₂ together
 313 with temperature, RH, and wind speed across day types and seasonal backgrounds. Marked seasonal contrasts were observed:
 314 mean temperature was higher in the pre-monsoon period (11.38 ± 5.77 °C) than in the monsoon period (7.77 ± 5.60 °C),
 315 whereas RH was substantially higher in the monsoon (42.02 ± 18.11 %) than in the pre-monsoon period (28.57 ± 20.42 %).
 316 Wind speed was slightly higher in the pre-monsoon period (2.46 ± 1.78 m s⁻¹) than in the monsoon period (1.97 ± 1.32 m s⁻¹),
 317 implying comparatively weaker ventilation during the monsoon that may favor episodic accumulation of precursors and
 318 vapors.

319 During the monsoon season, NPF days exhibited substantially higher SO₂ and NO₂ than non-NPF days: SO₂ averaged $1.92 \pm$
 320 2.08 ppb on NPF days, clearly exceeding 0.73 ± 0.75 ppb on non-NPF days, while NO₂ averaged 7.74 ± 5.69 ppb on NPF
 321 days compared with 4.38 ± 2.99 ppb on non-NPF days. The sector plots further indicate that elevated SO₂ and NO₂ occur
 322 more frequently under southerly transport on NPF days, whereas concentrations in the corresponding sectors are generally
 323 lower on non-NPF days (Fig. 8). Because SO₂ oxidation by OH· produces H₂SO₄, and H₂SO₄ is widely recognized as a key



324 nucleation precursor and critical for early particle growth, monsoon-season NPF at the site can be interpreted as a precursor-
 325 driven process in which SO_2 plays a central role (Olin et al., 2020; Yao et al., 2018; Kerminen et al., 2018). Although
 326 elevated NO_2 may suppress $\text{OH}\cdot$ and O_3 production by promoting radical termination and thereby hinder nucleation, the
 327 clearly elevated SO_2 observed on NPF days suggests that plentiful SO_2 increases the potential for H_2SO_4 formation. This
 328 interpretation is further supported by Fig. S5, which shows that during the particle-formation period SO_2 concentrations on
 329 NPF days are clearly higher than those on non-NPF days, suggesting that the promoting effect of SO_2 may outweigh the
 330 inhibitory effect associated with elevated NO_2 . This may partly offset NO_x -related suppression and enable NPF events to
 331 occur (Gao et al., 2025).



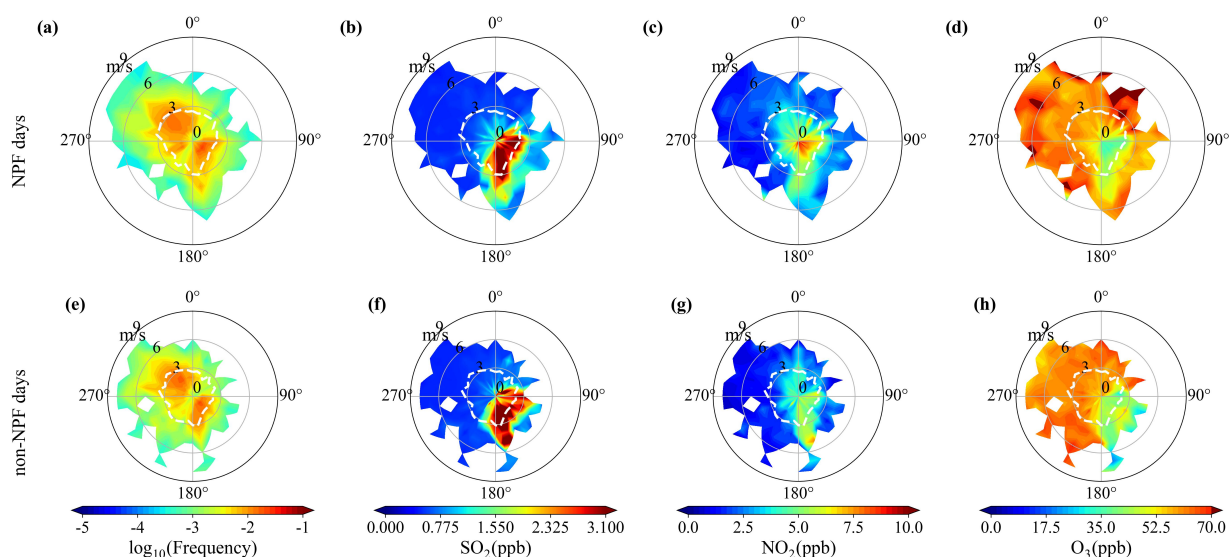
332

333 **Figure 8: Wind-sector analysis comparing the distributions of (a) wind speed and wind direction frequency together with sector-**
 334 **averaged concentrations of (b) SO_2 , (c) NO_2 , and (d) O_3 , for NPF days during the monsoon period; panels (e), (f), (g), and (h) show**
 335 **the corresponding wind-sector frequency and gas concentrations for non-NPF days during the monsoon period.**

336 During the pre-monsoon period, NPF formation is influenced by multiple factors and does not exhibit a single, well-defined
 337 controlling pattern. As shown in Figs. 9 and S6, although SO_2 , NO_2 , and O_3 differ to some extent between NPF and non-NPF
 338 days, the overall separation remains limited, while wind speed and wind direction also fail to show a consistent or distinctive
 339 signal. These results suggest that pre-monsoon NPF is more likely governed by the combined effects of multiple factors,
 340 including precursor supply, atmospheric oxidation, and boundary-layer evolution, rather than by any single dominant factor
 341 (Wu et al., 2024). Given that the contrast in inorganic gaseous precursors is generally weak, the possible contribution of
 342 VOC-related oxidation processes to the initial growth of newly formed particles deserves attention (Zhang et al., 2026; Yang
 343 et al., 2026). However, because direct observations of VOCs and their oxidation products are not available in this study, their
 344 specific role cannot be further constrained and still requires additional investigation.



345 Overall, the seasonal comparison highlights a clear seasonality in the controlling factors of NPF. During the monsoon season,
 346 NPF appears primarily driven by SO₂ availability and its oxidation to H₂SO₄, consistent with a “sulfur-precursor-limited”
 347 regime; although elevated NO₂ may exert inhibitory effects through radical termination, this suppression may be partly
 348 compensated by the higher acid formation potential under high SO₂. In contrast, during the pre-monsoon season, NPF
 349 appears to be governed by the combined influence of multiple processes rather than by a single dominant factor, with
 350 precursor availability, atmospheric oxidation, and boundary-layer evolution all likely playing a role; the possible
 351 contribution of VOC-related oxidation to early particle growth deserves attention but remains to be further constrained.



352

353 **Figure 9: Wind-sector analysis comparing the distributions of (a) wind speed and wind direction frequency together with sector-**
 354 **averaged concentrations of (b) SO₂, (c) NO₂, and (d) O₃, for NPF days during the pre-monsoon period; panels (e), (f), (g), and (h)**
 355 **show the corresponding wind-sector frequency and gas concentrations for non-NPF days during the pre-monsoon period.**

356 3.4 Modulation of CCN by NPF in urban air

357 To quantify the influence of NPF on CCN in the urban atmosphere of the Tibetan Plateau, we examined both the diurnal
 358 evolution and the distribution of CCN for different event categories as well as for the two seasonal periods (monsoon and
 359 pre-monsoon). Because direct measurements of CCN concentration were unavailable in this study, CCN was estimated from
 360 the measured PNSD using the κ -Köhler framework described in Sect. 2.3, assuming a constant particle hygroscopicity
 361 parameter κ of 0.12 and a supersaturation S of 1.2 %.

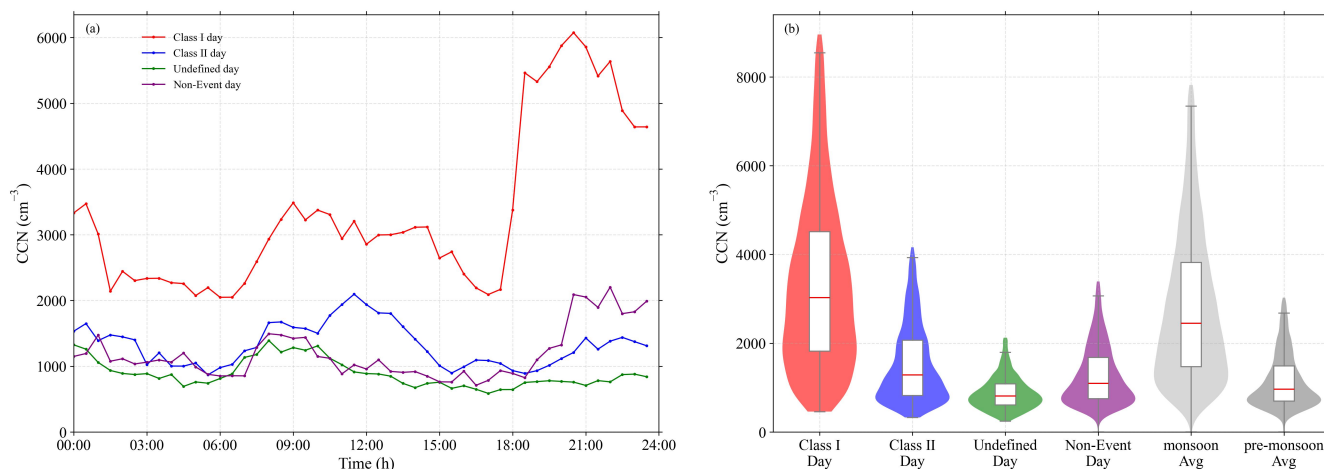
362 Fig. 10 illustrates pronounced event-type dependence of CCN in both diurnal evolution and overall distribution. CCN on
 363 Class I days remains substantially higher than in all other categories throughout the day and shows a strong late-day
 364 enhancement, with the highest values occurring from the late afternoon to evening (Shen et al., 2019). A weaker morning
 365 increase is also evident, but the dominant feature is the marked evening rise, consistent with sustained growth and survival of



366 newly formed particles into CCN-relevant sizes later in the day. In contrast, Class II days exhibit more moderate CCN levels
 367 with a broad daytime elevation and a weaker enhancement around midday, whereas Undefined and Non-Event days remain
 368 comparatively low and display only weak diurnal variability aside from a modest late-evening increase. The median (IQR)
 369 CCN concentration is 1095.3 (750.2–1678.9) cm^{-3} on Non-Event days. By comparison, CCN is highest and most broadly
 370 distributed on Class I days, with a median (IQR) of 3032.0 (1823.5–4513.5) cm^{-3} and an extended upper tail, followed by
 371 Class II days at 1285.7 (823.4–2066.2) cm^{-3} and Undefined days at 811.5 (610.4–1083.6) cm^{-3} . The average CCN
 372 concentration (± 1 standard deviation) follows the same ranking: $3351 \pm 1919 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (Class I) $> 1540.2 \pm 872.1 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (Class
 373 II) $> 1278.1 \pm 667.6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (Non-Event) $> 880.5 \pm 374.4 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (Undefined). These results further suggest that the CCN
 374 influence of NPF depends not only on nucleation occurrence, but also on the persistence of particle growth and survival after
 375 formation.

376 Seasonal perspective. The seasonal distributions show substantially higher CCN during the monsoon period than during the
 377 pre-monsoon period (Fig. 10b), consistent with the higher NPF frequency reported in Sect. 3.1. The monsoon median CCN
 378 is 2448.9 (1471.5–3820.6) cm^{-3} with a mean of $2813.0 \pm 1665.2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, whereas the pre-monsoon median is 964.7 (696.4–
 379 1489.6) cm^{-3} with a mean of $1152.1 \pm 608.9 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. This seasonal contrast indicates that enhanced secondary particle
 380 production and subsequent growth during the monsoon can maintain a markedly elevated CCN background in this high-
 381 altitude urban environment.

382 Overall, our results demonstrate that NPF is an effective source of CCN in the TP urban atmosphere, but its impact is
 383 strongly modulated by event type and season. The pronounced late-day CCN enhancement and the broad, high-CCN
 384 distribution on Class I days highlight the importance of sustained post-formation growth and particle survival in determining
 385 the strength of the CCN response. At the seasonal scale, the markedly elevated CCN levels during the monsoon indicate that
 386 frequent NPF events, together with favorable growth conditions, jointly sustain a high CCN background. This implies that
 387 secondary aerosol formation may play a more important role in aerosol–cloud interactions over high-altitude urban regions.



388



389 **Figure 10: Diurnal variation (a) and statistical distribution (b) of CCN concentration during different days, classified by NPF**
390 **events.**

391 **4 Conclusion**

392 This study provides a comprehensive characterization of NPF in Lhasa, a high-altitude urban center on the Tibetan Plateau,
393 with particular emphasis on the controlling factors of NPF and its implications for CCN during the pre-monsoon and
394 monsoon seasons. Frequent NPF was observed throughout the campaigns. The seasonal contrast in NPF occurrence was
395 pronounced, with event frequencies of 86.2 % in the monsoon and 55.1 % in the pre-monsoon, highlighting that the NPF
396 regime in Lhasa is highly sensitive to seasonally varying meteorology and atmospheric chemistry.

397 The results indicate that NPF in this high-altitude urban atmosphere is not primarily limited by the pre-existing particle sink,
398 but is more strongly governed by precursor availability and oxidative capacity. The CS remained comparable between
399 seasons, suggesting that the marked seasonal change in NPF frequency cannot be explained by sink suppression alone.
400 Instead, the chemical–meteorological context differs substantially across seasons. During the monsoon, NPF days were
401 associated with elevated SO₂, consistent with intensified sulfur-related photochemical production of condensable vapors
402 under abundant radiation, pointing to a regime where sulfuric-acid-driven nucleation and early growth are favored. In
403 contrast, pre-monsoon NPF did not show a single, well-defined controlling factor, but was more likely influenced by the
404 combined effects of precursor supply, atmospheric oxidation, and boundary-layer evolution. Under such conditions, VOC-
405 related oxidation may contribute to the early growth of newly formed particles, although its specific role remains to be
406 further constrained.

407 A key outcome of this work is that NPF substantially enhances CCN in Lhasa, and the magnitude of the CCN response is
408 governed by event strength and, critically, by whether newly formed particles can sustain growth after nucleation to reach
409 CCN activation diameters. CCN concentrations followed a clear hierarchy of Class I > Class II > non-event > undefined,
410 indicating that strong NPF events can maintain a markedly elevated CCN population relative to background conditions. The
411 diurnal evolution further shows that the CCN enhancement is most pronounced from late afternoon to evening on Class I
412 days, consistent with a persistent “banana-shaped” growth pattern and efficient survival of freshly formed particles into the
413 size range where they can be activated as CCN. On a seasonal basis, mean CCN during the monsoon exceeded that during
414 the pre-monsoon by more than a factor of two, implying that frequent NPF combined with favorable growth conditions can
415 raise the CCN background level in this high-altitude urban region and potentially influence aerosol–cloud interactions over
416 the TP. Deepening our understanding of NPF over the Tibetan Plateau is essential for more accurately assessing the impacts
417 of aerosols in the TP on the global atmospheric environment and climate, and it can provide a solid scientific basis for the
418 formulation of relevant policies.

419 Despite the insights gained in this study, several limitations should be acknowledged. First, the classification of NPF events
420 was mainly based on visual inspection of the daily evolution of particle number size distributions and modal development.
421 Although this approach has been widely used in previous studies, some uncertainty may still exist, particularly for weak



422 events or those with discontinuous growth. Second, CCN concentrations were not directly measured but estimated from the
423 measured PNSD using the κ -Köhler framework, which may introduce uncertainties associated with the assumed
424 hygroscopicity parameter and supersaturation. Therefore, the estimated CCN values are more suitable for interpreting
425 relative differences and response patterns than for over-interpreting their absolute magnitudes. In addition, due to the lack of
426 direct observations of VOCs and their oxidation products, the mechanisms of NPF, especially during the pre-monsoon period,
427 could not be further constrained. Future studies should combine longer-term continuous observations with direct CCN
428 measurements and additional observations of VOCs, H₂SO₄, and related oxidation products, in order to better identify the
429 controlling factors of NPF and its contribution to CCN in high-altitude urban environments over the Tibetan Plateau.

430 **Code and data availability**

431 The elevation data used in this study are openly available from the Geospatial Data Cloud at <https://www.gscloud.cn>.

432 The raw observational datasets used in this study have been deposited in Zenodo and can be freely downloaded from
433 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.19876491>.

434 The codes used for data processing and figure generation have been deposited in a separate Zenodo repository and can be
435 freely downloaded from <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.19879177>.

436 **Author contributions**

437 QM and LW wrote the manuscript. QM, LW, GZ, CY, JS and TZ discussed the original idea and results. JS, FS, TL, YG,
438 and YC conducted the field measurement. QM, LW and JS processed and analysed the data.

439 **Competing interests**

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

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