



1 **Implementation of state-of-the-art ternary new particle formation scheme to**
2 **the regional chemical transport model PMCAMx-UF in Europe**

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28

29 **Abstract**

30 The particle formation scheme within PMCAMx-UF, a three dimensional chemical transport model,
31 was updated with particle formation rates for the ternary H₂SO₄-NH₃-H₂O pathway simulated by the
32 Atmospheric Cluster Dynamics Code (ACDC) using quantum chemical input data. The model was
33 applied over Europe for May 2008, during which the EUCAARI-LONGREX campaign was carried out
34 providing aircraft vertical profiles of aerosol number concentrations. The updated model reproduces the
35 observed number concentrations of particles larger than 4 nm within one order of magnitude throughout
36 the atmospheric column. This reasonable agreement is very encouraging considering the fact that no



37 semi-empirical fitting was needed to obtain realistic particle formation rates. The cloud adjustment
38 scheme for modifying the photolysis rate profiles within PMCAMx-UF was also updated with the TUV
39 (Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visible) radiative transfer model. Results show that although the effect of
40 the new cloud adjustment scheme on total number concentrations is small, enhanced new particle
41 formation is predicted near cloudy regions. This is due to the enhanced radiation above and in the
42 vicinity of the clouds, which in turn leads to higher production of sulfuric acid. The sensitivity of the
43 results to including emissions from natural sources is also discussed.

44

45 **1 Introduction**

46 Formation of new particles from atmospheric vapors (new particle formation, NPF) is potentially an
47 important source of particulate matter in the atmosphere, especially in the ultrafine (<100 nm in
48 diameter) size range (Kulmala et al., 2004; Merikanto et al., 2009; Jung et al., 2010; Fountoukis et al.,
49 2012; Kerminen et al., 2012; Fuzzi et al., 2015). In the past, in modeling studies on the role of in-situ
50 NPF as a particle source, particle formation has been represented with various parameterizations
51 including binary (Vehkamäki et al., 2002) or ternary (Napari et al., 2002) nucleation based on the
52 classical nucleation theory (CNT), semi-empirical activation (Kulmala et al., 2006), kinetic (McMurry,
53 1980) or organic-enhanced (Paasonen et al., 2010) NPF and/or ion mediated nucleation (Yu and Luo,
54 2009). These parameterizations have generally assumed sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄), water (H₂O), ammonia
55 (NH₃), or different organic species as the compounds forming the new particles. The activation, kinetic
56 and organic-enhanced mechanisms are semi-empirical, based on the observed dependence of particle
57 formation rates on concentrations of sulfuric acid and/or organic vapors (Sihto et al., 2006; Paasonen
58 et al., 2010). The advantage of such methods is that they are simple and produce nucleation rates of the
59 same order as those observed. However, as they are fit to specific experiments usually at ground level,
60 they are most reliable at locations and conditions similar to those at which the data has been obtained.
61 The ternary H₂SO₄-H₂O-NH₃ parameterization by Napari et al. (2002) has been used with some success
62 (Adams and Seinfeld, 2002; Jung et al., 2008; Jung et al., 2010; Fountoukis et al., 2012; Westervelt
63 et al., 2014), but with quite drastic correction factors necessary to reproduce ambient particle number
64 concentrations. In many previous studies (Spracklen et al., 2006; Makkonen et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2010)
65 the binary H₂SO₄-H₂O nucleation has been assumed to dominate in the upper atmosphere and be
66 negligible at lower altitudes, and it has often been superimposed with one of the other mechanisms.

67

68 Sulfuric acid, water and ammonia have long been established as important molecules forming new
69 particles in the atmosphere (Korhonen et al., 1999; Kulmala et al., 2000; Laaksonen et al., 2008).
70 However, standard theoretical descriptions of the ternary H₂SO₄-H₂O-NH₃ particle formation pathway
71 have not been able to reproduce measured particle formation rates – hence the need to resort to semi-
72 empirical parameterizations and correction factors to describe this process in atmospheric models.



73 Recent experimental (Kirkby et al., 2011; Almeida et al., 2013; Jen et al., 2014) and computational
74 developments have, however, changed this picture drastically. Flexible computational models (such as
75 the Atmospheric Cluster Dynamics Code, ACDC, Olenius et al., 2013) which simulate the kinetics of a
76 population of molecular clusters combined with cluster free energies calculated from first-principles
77 methods, can now reproduce laboratory observations of particle formation rates in H₂SO₄-NH₃ as well
78 as H₂SO₄-amine systems with reasonable accuracy (Almeida et al., 2013), without the need for empirical
79 scaling of the predicted particle formation rate.

80

81 Predictions of particle number concentration from regional-scale chemical transport models have been
82 evaluated typically with data from ground-level observations (Jung et al., 2008; Matsui et al., 2011a,
83 2013c; Fountoukis et al., 2012; Cui et al., 2014; Lupascu et al., 2015). Meanwhile, there is much to gain
84 from assessing the model against vertically-resolved particle number observations, as many of the
85 uncertainties in the model relate to particle scavenging, by hydrometeors as well as other particles, and
86 mixing of air masses. The possible biases introduced from parameterizing new particle formation rates
87 with ground-level data makes it all the more imperative to evaluate and constrain models with
88 observations taken at altitude. Recent studies (Reddington et al., 2011; Lupascu et al., 2015) have begun
89 assessing global- and regional-scale models in this way against data from European and US field
90 campaigns involving aircraft measurements. Furthermore, it is worthwhile to explore the vertical
91 variability in chemical and environmental precursors to NPF (e.g. H₂SO₄, NH₃, *T*, RH, etc.) and particle
92 number concentrations.

93

94 In this work we describe the implementation of a H₂SO₄-H₂O-NH₃ new particle formation scheme based
95 on the output of the ACDC model to the regional chemical transport model PMCAMx-UF (Jung et al.,
96 2010, Fountoukis et al., 2012). We test the new scheme by simulating the evolution of atmospheric gas-
97 phase and aerosol particle concentrations during May 2008 in Europe. We evaluate the model against
98 ground-based and airborne observations of aerosol particle number size distributions during the
99 simulated period. Furthermore, we implement an updated radiative transfer scheme TUV (Tropospheric
100 Ultraviolet and Visible radiative transfer model; Madronich, 2002) for PMCAMx-UF and discuss its
101 implications for predictions of NPF and particle number concentrations in the European domain.

102

103 **2 Methods**

104 **2.1 PMCAMx-UF model description**

105 PMCAMx-UF is a three-dimensional regional chemical transport model that simulates both the size-
106 dependent particle number and chemically-resolved mass concentrations (Jung et al. 2010). PMCAMx-
107 UF utilizes the framework of the air quality model PMCAMx (Gaydos et al., 2007, Karydis et al., 2007),



108 where the description of vertical and horizontal advection and dispersion, wet and dry deposition, and
109 gas-phase chemistry are based on the CAMx air quality model, and the variable size-resolution model
110 of Fahey and Pandis (2001) is used for aqueous-phase chemistry. To treat the aerosol microphysics,
111 including NPF, condensation and coagulation, PMCAMx-UF uses the Dynamic Model for Aerosol
112 Nucleation (DMAN) module by Jung et al. (2006). DMAN uses the Two-Moment Aerosol Sectional
113 (TOMAS) algorithm (Adams and Seinfeld, 2002) to track the aerosol number and mass distributions.
114 DMAN divides the aerosol particles into 41 logarithmically-spaced size bins between 0.8 nm and 10
115 μm .

116

117 The aerosol species modeled in PMCAMx-UF include sulfate, ammonium, water, elemental carbon,
118 crustal material, chloride, sodium, nitrate, primary organic aerosol and four secondary organic aerosol
119 surrogate compounds. The version of TOMAS used in the model applied here tracks explicitly the mass
120 transfer of sulfate and ammonium while that of water is treated assuming equilibrium. Within the
121 DMAN aerosol microphysics module the remaining compounds are represented by inert surrogate
122 species. The pseudo-steady-state approximation method (Pierce and Adams, 2009), which assumes
123 steady-state concentration for sulfuric acid, is used for the calculation of NPF and sulfuric acid
124 condensation rates. The condensation of ammonia is calculated independently following the approach
125 described in Jung et al. (2006).

126

127 New particle formation rates in the standard version of PMCAMx-UF have been calculated in previous
128 studies using a scaled version of the ternary $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ parametrization by Napari et al. (2002),
129 hereafter referred to as the “scaled” Napari parameterization. The original Napari parameterization is
130 based on predictions of the CNT assuming that the energetics of the molecular clusters follow bulk
131 thermodynamics. While it has been shown to perform better than a range of other nucleation
132 parameterizations in predicting the occurrence of new particle formation events (Jung et al. 2008), it is
133 also known to overpredict ultrafine particle number concentrations (Gaydos et al., 2005; Yu et al.,
134 2006a; Jung et al., 2006; Merikanto et al., 2007b; Zhang et al., 2010). Thus a semi-empirical correction
135 factor of 10^{-6} has been applied previously in PMCAMx-UF to scale the formation rates produced by the
136 Napari parameterization and better match the observations (Jung et al., 2010; Fountoukis et al., 2012;
137 Ahlm et al., 2013).

138

139 Encouraged by the good agreement between particle formation rates predicted by the ACDC model and
140 the state-of-the-art experimental data (Almeida et al., 2013), we have updated the particle formation
141 scheme within PMCAMx-UF with ACDC-based particle formation rates for the $\text{NH}_3\text{-H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ (see
142 Sect. 2.2 for details and the Results section for comparison to the scaled Napari parameterization). In
143 addition to applying the ternary $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ NPF scheme, we also include a binary $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$



144 NPF pathway. This pathway is operating simultaneously with the ternary pathway and is based on the
145 Vehkamäki et al. (2002) CNT-parameterization.

146

147 PMCAMx-UF was applied for the period of May 2008 for the European domain which consists of a
148 $5400 \times 5832 \text{ km}^2$ region with a $36 \times 36 \text{ km}^2$ grid resolution and 14 vertical layers reaching an altitude
149 of approximately 20 km. The PMCAMx-UF output data are hourly averaged. The meteorological inputs,
150 described in detail in Fountoukis et al. (2011; 2012), were created using the Weather Research and
151 Forecasting model version 2 (Skamarock et al., 2005) and include horizontal wind components, vertical
152 dispersion coefficients, temperature, pressure, water vapor mixing ratios, cloud optical depths and
153 rainfall rates. Hourly gridded emissions include anthropogenic emission rates of primary particulate
154 matter and gases. For the particle emissions the Pan-European anthropogenic Particle Number Emission
155 Inventory (Denier van der Gon et al., 2009; Kulmala et al., 2011) and the Pan-European Carbonaceous
156 Aerosol Inventory (Kulmala et al., 2011) were used. The anthropogenic gas emissions include both land
157 emissions from the GEMS data set (Visschedijk et al., 2007) and international shipping emissions. These
158 emission inputs are the same as have been used previously for the May 2008 period in PMCAMx-UF
159 (in Fountoukis et al., 2012; Ahlm et al., 2013), and thus in order to enable comparison to the previous
160 works these inputs are used in all of the base model runs of the present paper. To assess how much the
161 particle number concentrations are affected by emissions from natural sources we have performed
162 simulations with and without these emissions. The natural emissions include both particulate matter and
163 gases and combine three different datasets: emissions from ecosystems based on the MEGAN model
164 (Guenther et al., 2006), marine emissions based on the model of O'Dowd et al. (2008), and wildfire
165 emissions (Sofiev et al., 2008a, b).

166

167 **2.2 Improved treatment of the ternary NPF pathway**

168 The ternary $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ particle formation rate at approximately 1.2 nm in mass diameter was
169 calculated with the Atmospheric Cluster Dynamics Code (ACDC; Olenius et al., 2013; Almeida et al.,
170 2013; Henschel et al., 2015). ACDC simulates the dynamics of a population of molecular clusters by
171 numerically solving the cluster birth–death equations. Instead of considering only collisions and
172 evaporations of single vapor molecules, an often-used assumption applied in the CNT framework,
173 ACDC allows all possible collision and fragmentation processes within the cluster population. As input
174 the code needs the corresponding rate constants, of which the most challenging to assess are the cluster
175 evaporation rates, generally calculated from the free energies of formation of the clusters. The
176 evaporation rates play a significant role in determining the number concentration and consequently the
177 formation rate of small particles. The liquid drop model, commonly used in CNT to calculate the free
178 energies of cluster formation, is based on macroscopic thermodynamics and is thus not expected to give
179 reliable results for small clusters (Merikanto et al., 2007a). The most accurate theoretical method to



180 compute the free energies of clusters consisting of specific molecules is quantum chemistry. This
181 modeling approach is able to reproduce the general trends in cluster formation, and leads to, thus far,
182 the best quantitative agreement between observations and modeling with no fitting parameters (Almeida
183 et al., 2013).

184

185 In the ACDC simulations of this work, hard-sphere collision rates were used for the collision rate
186 coefficients, and the evaporation rate coefficients were calculated from the Gibbs free energies of
187 formation of the clusters computed with quantum chemical methods at the B3LYP/CBSB7//RICC2/aug-
188 cc-pV(T+d)Z level (Ortega et al., 2012; Henschel et al., 2014). This level of theory has been tested
189 against higher level methods and was shown to give reliable cluster formation free energies at an
190 affordable computational cost. The simulation included clusters containing up to three H₂SO₄ and three
191 NH₃ molecules, hydrated by up to four or five water molecules. Sulfuric acid and ammonia were
192 explicitly treated in the simulation, and water was implicitly included by assuming that the clusters are
193 in equilibrium with respect to water and by using hydrate averaged collision and evaporation rates. An
194 external sink term corresponding to scavenging by larger particles was used for all the clusters. The
195 steady-state particle formation rate was obtained as the flux of clusters growing out of the simulation
196 system considering boundary conditions based on cluster stability. Details of the simulated ternary
197 H₂SO₄–NH₃–H₂O system can be found in Henschel et al. (2015).

198

199 The ACDC results were implemented in the PMCAMx-UF framework as a look-up table consisting of
200 a comprehensive set of particle formation rates computed at different values of H₂SO₄ and NH₃
201 concentrations, temperature, RH, and coagulation loss rate due to scavenging by the population of
202 larger particles (described by the condensation sink, see e.g. Dal Maso et al., 2002). The formation rate
203 data produced by theoretical models have been traditionally fitted to a multivariable functional form
204 (Napari et al, 2002; Merikanto et al., 2007b), with the resulting parameterization then utilized by large
205 scale models. However, finding a suitable functional form to cover satisfactorily the whole parameter
206 space becomes increasingly difficult with increasing number of input parameters, with increasing
207 number of species participating in NPF, and with the tendency of formation rates to exhibit rapid, step
208 function-like changes with respect to one or more parameters. Thus interpolating from a look-up table
209 provides formation rates that are more closely in line with the original theoretical model, with a relatively
210 minor additional computational cost. The parameter space encompasses sulfuric acid concentration
211 between $1.00 \cdot 10^4$ and $3.16 \cdot 10^9$ molecules cm⁻³, ammonia concentration between 10^6 and 10^{11}
212 molecules cm⁻³, relative humidity between 0 and 100 %, temperature between 180 and 320 K and
213 condensation sink between 10^{-5} and 10^{-1} s⁻¹. These conditions bound the environmental and chemical
214 conditions predicted by typical PMCAMx-UF runs for Europe in May. PMCAMx-UF uses multilinear
215 interpolation to extract formation rates from the look-up table. The newly-formed particles added to
216 PMCAMx-UF are assumed to have a diameter of 1.2 nm, corresponding to the size for which the ACDC



217 formation rates were calculated. This approach provides PMCAMx-UF with formation rates that are
218 based on the full kinetic treatment of the cluster population.

219

220 **2.3 Radiative transfer and photolysis rates**

221 Aerosols and clouds can enhance or reduce photolysis of relevant gas-phase chemical species in the
222 atmosphere by reflecting, scattering, or absorbing solar radiation. Modifications of photolysis rates via
223 this interaction lead to changes in the production rate of sulfuric acid, which lead directly to changes in
224 the new particle formation rates. Previous versions of PMCAMx-UF employed a parameterization
225 originally used by the Regional Acid Deposition Model (RADM; Chang et al., 1987) to treat the
226 modification of photolysis rates due to cloud presence. This approach required the cloud optical depth
227 from the meteorological input data and the solar zenith angle in order to calculate the time- and layer-
228 dependent adjustment factors for the photolysis rates. This method, however, did not use aerosol
229 concentrations predicted online by the transport model. Instead, a reference aerosol profile was used for
230 every time step and column of grid cells.

231

232 To more realistically treat the effects of clouds on the photolysis rates profile of the atmospheric column,
233 we updated the online approach in PMCAMx-UF to a streamlined form of the two-stream radiative
234 transfer module, TUV (Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visible radiative transfer model; Madronich,
235 2002). The implementation of TUV was completed as documented by Emery et al. (2010). This
236 simplified module employs a reduced number of wavelength bands and plane-parallel two-stream
237 approximations. Inputs needed include the cloud optical depth, solar zenith angle, three-dimensional
238 aerosol concentration profile, and optical properties of the aerosol components provided by Takemura
239 et al., 2002.

240

241 The total cloud optical depth τ above a current grid cell up to the top of troposphere is here approximated
242 by

$$243 \quad \tau = \frac{3L\Delta z_c}{2\rho_w r}, \quad (1)$$

244 where L is the mean cloud liquid water (g m^{-3}), Δz_c is the mean depth of cloudy layer (m) in the cell, ρ
245 is the density of water (10^6 g m^{-3}), and r is the mean cloud drop radius (10^{-5} m). The grid cells with cloud
246 optical depth less than 5 are considered as optically thin clouds (or cloud-free conditions), so that the
247 TUV module is not called for such grid cells. The module also takes as input the time- and space-
248 dependent vertical profile of dry and wet (with an RH-dependent lensing effect) aerosols predicted by
249 PMCAMx-UF.

250



251 The module outputs a modified actinic flux that can then be applied, using the clear-sky actinic flux for
252 reference, to adjust the clear-sky photolysis rates. Adjustments due to clouds and aerosols tend to reduce
253 photolysis below clouds but often enhance rates above clouds because of the reflection from the top of
254 the cloud. Emery et al. (2010) implemented the module in the Comprehensive Air Quality Model with
255 Extensions (CAMx) and evaluated it for ozone prediction in the Houston area. That study found
256 decreased ozone surface concentrations with maximum decreases of approximately 10 ppb. However,
257 they did not report the impacts that the radiation feedback would have on particulate mass or number.
258 We compare particle number and sulfuric acid vapor profiles with and without the radiation update in
259 place to better understand the importance of correctly representing this phenomenon.

260

261 **2.4 Model evaluation with particle number and size distribution data**

262 During the European Aerosol Cloud Climate and Air Quality Interactions (EUCAARI) project (Kulmala
263 et al., 2009; 2011) particle number size distributions within the atmospheric boundary layer were
264 measured at various European Supersites for Atmospheric Aerosol Research (EUSAAR). May 2008
265 was one of the intensive observation periods of the project. In this study the predicted ground-level
266 hourly-averaged particle number concentrations are evaluated against the data from Aspöreten
267 (Sweden), Cabauw (Netherlands), Hyytiälä (Finland), Ispra (Italy), Mace Head (Ireland), Melpitz
268 (Germany) and Vavihill (Sweden) similarly to Fountoukis et al. (2012). These locations represent seven
269 different types of European environments (Ahlm et al., 2013). More information about the
270 characteristics and topography of these sites is available elsewhere (Asmi et al., 2011 and Fountoukis et
271 al., 2012). The particle size distribution measurements were carried out using either a Differential
272 Mobility Particle Sizer (DMPS) or Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS) systems in the mobility
273 diameter size range above 10 nm.

274 To evaluate the vertical profile of the particle size distribution, we used the observational data measured
275 by the German DLR Falcon 20 and the British FAAM BAe-146 research aircrafts, operating between 6
276 and 24 May 2008. The aircraft data was collected during the LONGREX campaign (Hamburger et al.,
277 2011), which was also a part of the EUCAARI project. The FAAM BAe-146 flights mainly flew in the
278 boundary layer and lower free troposphere while the DLR Falcon 20 aircraft mostly probed the free
279 troposphere up to the tropopause level (Hamburger et al., 2011). The Condensation Particle Size
280 Analyser (CPSA) (Fiebig et al., 2005; Feldpausch et al., 2006), installed aboard the DLR Falcon 20, and
281 the Passive Cavity Aerosol Spectrometer Probe (PCASP-100X) (Liu et al., 1992), operated aboard both
282 aircraft, measured the particle number concentrations. Consistent with Reddington et al. (2011), we used
283 the measurements from two channels of the CPSA onboard the DLR Falcon 20 with lower cut-off
284 diameters of 4 and 10 nm, yielding the number concentrations of particles above these sizes, denoted as
285 N_4 and N_{10} . The temporal resolution of the CPSA dataset is 1 s. The nominal size range of PCASP-100X
286 is 0.12-3.5 μm with 15 channels. The PCASP-100X raw data was sampled with 1 Hz frequency, but the



287 data used here is based on averaging over a constant interval of 5 s. We used the measured particle
288 number concentrations obtained from channels 3 to 10 of the PCASP-100X covering the diameter range
289 of 160-1040 nm, representative of accumulation mode, also to facilitate comparisons with the results
290 reported by Reddington et al. (2011). We also used measurements by a TSI 3786 Condensational Particle
291 Counter (CPC) aboard the FAAM BAe-146 aircraft measuring the number concentrations of particles
292 larger than 4 nm.

293 A map of flight tracks by the Falcon 20 and Bae-146 and more details about EUCAARI-LONGREX
294 dataset is available elsewhere (Reddington et al., 2011; Hamburger et al., 2012). Measurements from
295 the LONGREX campaign span altitudes corresponding to 13 of the 14 vertical layers of PMCAMx-UF
296 (Fig. S1 in the supplement). The model data were paired with the aircraft data by converting the time-
297 dependent latitude, longitude, and altitude of the plane to a model grid-cell index.

298

299 **3 Results**

300 **3.1 Surface-level particle number concentrations**

301 In this study we explore the sensitivity of PMCAMx-UF to (1) updated NPF scheme with ACDC-based
302 formation rates, (2) updated cloud adjustment scheme with TUV implementation, and (3) including
303 natural particle number emissions. The baseline simulation (hereafter ACDC-TUV-DE; see Table 1)
304 represents a prediction of the particle number concentrations with implementation of ACDC-based NPF
305 scheme and TUV cloud adjustment scheme while using the default (i.e. only anthropogenic) particle
306 emissions similarly to Fountoukis et al. (2012). Table 1 summarizes the simulations reported in this
307 study. Figure 1 shows the arithmetic mean number concentration over May 2008 at ground-level for
308 each PMCAMx-UF grid cell for particles larger than 10 (N_{10}), 50 (N_{50}) and 100 (N_{100}) nm and all particles
309 (N_{tot}) as predicted using the baseline simulation ACDC-TUV-DE. The first two days of the simulation
310 were excluded from the analysis to minimize the impact of the initial conditions on the results. The
311 domain mean during May 2008 for N_{tot} is 59200 cm^{-3} , for N_{10} the corresponding number is 7100 cm^{-3} ,
312 for N_{50} 1300 cm^{-3} , and for N_{100} 360 cm^{-3} . The spatial pattern of the predicted number concentrations is
313 similar to the results reported by Fountoukis et al. (2012), which were obtained using the simulation
314 Napari-RADM-DE. The highest number concentrations are predicted over Eastern Europe during this
315 photochemically active period while the lowest particle number concentrations are predicted over
316 Nordic countries. The simulation Napari-TUV-DE predicts the domain mean of N_{tot} , N_{10} , N_{50} and N_{100}
317 of 8100, 4000, 1500 and 410, respectively. Although updating the NPF scheme of PMCAMx-UF with
318 ACDC-based formation rates significantly affects the number of small particles with diameter below 10
319 nm, the spatial concentration remains unchanged. Updating the model cloudiness scheme by



320 implementing the TUV radiative transfer module did not greatly affect the spatial distribution of number
321 concentrations but caused a minor change in the number concentration values. This is confirmed by the
322 arithmetic domain mean values during May 2008 of N_{tot} , N_{10} , N_{50} and N_{100} predicted by the ACDC-
323 RADM-DE simulation, which are 62000, 6800, 1200 and 340 cm^{-3} , respectively, and thus very similar
324 to the baseline simulation. Including the natural particle emissions (in simulation ACDC-TUV-NE)
325 resulted in 48300, 6200, 1300 and 380 cm^{-3} for N_{tot} , N_{10} , N_{50} and N_{100} , respectively, therefore predicting
326 lower number concentrations of small particles (i.e. diameter $< 10 \text{ nm}$) compared to that predicted by
327 the baseline simulation. This is probably due to the higher sink of newly formed particles caused by the
328 added natural particle emissions.

329

330 Figure 2 shows scatter plots of the predicted (ACDC-RADM-DE) versus measured hourly-averaged
331 N_{10} , N_{50} and N_{100} at the seven EUSAAR measurement sites during May 2008. More than 70 % of the
332 data points for N_{50} and N_{100} predictions fall generally within a factor of two of the measurements, with
333 slight underpredictions for N_{100} (38% below the 2:1 line) at some sites, similar to the results predicted
334 by Napari-RADM-DE simulation reported by Fountoukis et al. (2012). However, the model using the
335 ACDC-based formation rates is overpredicting N_{10} , in particular over clean locations including
336 Aspvreten, Hyytiälä, Vavihill and Mace Head. The reason for this overprediction is most likely linked
337 to the missing condensable vapors and particle growth mechanisms in the simulations reported here (see
338 Fountoukis et al., 2012; Ahlm et al., 2013; Patoulias et al., 2015). When implemented, the additional
339 growth would likely increase the condensation sink by shifting the size distribution towards larger sizes.
340 However, given the fact that no empirical fitting parameters have been applied to the ACDC-based NPF
341 description, we deem the agreement encouraging. The biases presented here and in the following figures
342 can thus be considered conservative estimates. Furthermore, in this study we have only considered the
343 ternary sulfuric acid - water - ammonia particle formation scheme. There may be other significant
344 mechanisms present, e.g. sulfuric acid - amine particle formation (Bergman et al., 2015), with a
345 geographical pattern resembling that of our results. Both mechanisms depend on sulfuric acid
346 concentration, the model prediction of which can naturally be inaccurate as well. We compared the
347 modeled and measured acid concentrations at one of the measurement sites (Melpitz), and found that
348 the modeled concentrations were slightly overpredicted (Fig. S2 in the supplement). This may also
349 contribute to the overprediction of the small particle sizes.

350

351 **3.2 Vertical profiles of particle number concentrations**

352 In this section we investigate the vertical distribution of the means of N_{tot} , N_{10} , N_{50} and N_{100} along with
353 parameters relevant for predicting NPF for the base case simulations (Fig. 3). These parameters include
354 gas-phase concentrations of H_2SO_4 and NH_3 , RH and T . In the results shown in Fig 3 the TUV radiation
355 scheme has been used, thus representing the baseline simulation ACDC-TUV-DE. As can be seen from



356 Fig. 3, particles smaller than 10 nm contribute significantly to the total number concentration throughout
357 the tropospheric column, N_{tot} is about one order of magnitude greater than N_{10} and two and three orders
358 of magnitudes greater than N_{50} and N_{100} , respectively. Values of N_{10} , N_{50} and N_{100} decrease monotonically
359 with altitude, dropping significantly at approximately 1 km (layers 6-8 of the model). The vertical
360 distribution of N_{tot} shows a different trend at higher altitudes where a bump in N_{tot} occurs at around 6-
361 11 km, although no significant increase in the gas phase concentration of H_2SO_4 and NH_3 are predicted
362 at these altitudes (Fig. 3). The increase in N_{tot} is mostly due to significantly decreased coagulation sink
363 for the newly-formed particles, as the number of larger particles dramatically decreases with altitude,
364 and partly due to the rapidly decreasing temperature. PMCAMx-UF predicts the particle formation rates
365 to decrease rapidly from around 2 km upward. The temperature, RH and sulfuric acid profile have
366 similar relative trends as the N_{10} , N_{50} and N_{100} profiles. There is a plateau in temperature and RH (at
367 temperature range 285-288 K and RH range 80-83 %) profile up to altitude 1.2 km. Above this altitude,
368 however, the RH and temperature values decrease rapidly. The sharp decreases in the relative humidity,
369 temperature and particle number concentrations are consistent with the location of the boundary layer
370 height. This is in agreement with Ferrero et al., (2010) who showed that mixing height estimations (over
371 the city of Milan) derived from particle number concentration, temperature and relative humidity are
372 correlated with one another.

373 Figure 4 shows the comparison of the two simulations ACDC-TUV-DE and Napari-TUV-DE (see Table
374 1) with the observational data collected during the EUCAARI-LONGREX campaign measured by
375 German DLR Falcon 20 and the British FAAM BAe-146 aircraft. The model using the ACDC-based
376 formation rates predicts the number concentration profile of particles larger than 4 nm (N_4) within about
377 one order of magnitude of the observed N_4 profile throughout the atmospheric column. The scaled
378 Napari NPF scheme leads to N_4 concentrations somewhat closer to the observations than those using the
379 ACDC scheme. As mentioned above, the vertical profiles presented in Figure 4 are produced by the
380 model using the TUV radiation scheme. A similar analysis of the vertical profiles using the RADM
381 radiation scheme (simulation ACDC-RADM-DE), which is not shown here, results in exactly the same
382 shape of the number concentration profiles. The vertical profiles using the RADM radiation scheme
383 show negligible difference in the absolute number concentrations with slightly worse agreement with
384 the observations compared to the TUV radiation scheme. The number concentrations of particles larger
385 than 10 nm (N_{10}) predicted by the model using the scaled Napari NPF scheme agrees reasonably well
386 with the observations throughout the atmospheric column. The model using the ACDC formation rates
387 tends to slightly overpredict the N_{10} profile. The shape of the observed N_{10} vertical profile is captured
388 reasonably well throughout the atmospheric column regardless of the NPF scheme used. Both model
389 versions have almost the same performance for the $N_{160-1040}$ profile within the boundary layer; both
390 simulations (i.e. ACDC-TUV-DE and Napari-TUV-DE) underpredicting the $N_{160-1040}$ profile by about
391 half an order of magnitude. This behavior is seen in the $N_{160-1040}$ profile corresponding to both



392 observational data sets (i.e. Falcon 20 (Fig. 4-d) and BAe 146 (Fig 4-e) aircraft data). This is at least
393 partly due to the lack of sources of organic condensable vapors to grow the particles to larger sizes in
394 the model (Patoulias et al., 2015), which will be investigated in a future study. The underprediction
395 decreases for all model versions at altitudes above the boundary layer improving the agreement with
396 observational data.

397 The results for the model using the ACDC-based formation rates are comparable to previous studies.
398 For example, Reddington et al. (2011) tested different NPF parameterizations in BL including activation,
399 kinetic and combined organic-H₂SO₄ parameterizations, which are implemented in the Global Model of
400 Aerosol Processes (GLOMAP). The evaluation of the modeled vertical profiles of particle number
401 concentrations against the aircraft measurements similar to this study showed that all of the mentioned
402 NPF schemes dramatically under-predicted particles in nucleation (normalized mean bias (NMB) varies
403 from -33 to -96) and Aitken mode sizes (-44 < NMB < -59). The larger particles (N₁₀₀) however were
404 generally well-captured by the model. Furthermore, Lupascu et al. (2015) compared simulated number
405 concentrations with aircraft measurements collected during the Carbonaceous Aerosol and Radiative
406 Effects Study (CARES) campaign. They also tested different NPF parameterizations including
407 activation, kinetic and combined organic-H₂SO₄ parameterizations, which are implemented in the
408 regional scale model WRF-Chem one-at-a-time using a sectional framework to simulate the NPF. They
409 found that their simulations overpredicted the particle number concentrations, especially in the smallest
410 sizes (normalized mean bias of 126-608 % for N₃ and N₁₀). The nucleation scheme had very little impact
411 on the magnitude of the CCN-sized particle number concentrations.

412

413 3.3 Effect of the radiative transfer scheme on predictions of particle number concentrations

414 Updating the radiative transfer scheme to the TUV scheme has a small effect on the predicted number
415 concentrations; the vertical profile of the relative difference $(N_{\text{TUV}} - N_{\text{RADM}}) \times 100 / N_{\text{RADM}}$ in the May-
416 2008 domain mean particle number concentrations shows a maximum reduction of about -5.5 % in N_{tot}
417 (at altitude 2.2 km) and a maximum increase of about 9 % in N₁₀₀ (at altitude range 0.7-2.2 km). Figure
418 5 shows the spatial distribution of the absolute difference of the H₂SO₄ gas phase concentration and total
419 particle number concentrations between the simulations ACDC-TUV-DE and ACDC-RADM-DE (see
420 Table 1) at 12:00 UTC on May 5, 2008. Figure 5 also presents the cloud optical depth fields to illustrate
421 the link between the cloud fields and changes in the particle number concentrations due to the new cloud
422 adjustment scheme. The TUV scheme results in higher particle formation rates above and in the vicinity
423 of the cloudy regions due to enhanced radiation and sulfuric acid production. This is in agreement with
424 observations reported by Wehner et al. (2015). They concluded that the cloudy regions provide a
425 favorable environment for NPF above and at the edges of clouds due to enhanced upward spectral
426 irradiance and cloud-reflected spectral radiance around them. Sulfuric acid concentration is reduced



427 below cloud in the TUV scheme, due to the enhanced UV attenuation scaling down the photolysis rates.
428 However, as pointed out above, the effect on the total particle number concentrations is generally small.

429 **4 Conclusions**

430 We have updated the new particle formation (NPF) scheme within PMCAMx-UF with particle
431 formation rates for the ternary $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ pathway simulated by the Atmospheric Cluster
432 Dynamics Code using quantum chemical input data. The ACDC results were implemented in
433 PMCAMx-UF as a lookup table from which the formation rates were interpolated. We believe this is
434 the first time that reasonable particle concentrations have been produced in a large-scale atmospheric
435 model with a NPF scheme without any scaling factors or location/condition dependent semi-empiricism.
436 In addition to the updated NPF description, we have also updated PMCAMx-UF treatment of the
437 cloudiness effect on the photolysis rates (i.e. cloud adjustment scheme) profile by implementing a
438 streamlined version of the Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visible radiative transfer model (Madronich,
439 2002).

440 We used the updated PMCAMx-UF to simulate particle number concentration during May 2008 over
441 Europe. During this period, the EUCAARI campaign was performed to measure the particle number
442 size distributions within the atmospheric boundary layer at various European Supersites for Atmospheric
443 Aerosol Research (EUSAAR) in addition to higher altitude data collected by two research aircraft during
444 the LONGREX campaign. Comparing the measured particle number concentrations at the EUSAAR
445 sites to the predictions of the updated PMCAMx-UF shows that the model slightly overpredicts
446 concentrations for particles with diameters between 10-100 nm. Particles larger than 100 nm are slightly
447 underpredicted. In general, the model predictions of number concentrations of aerosols, in particular
448 particles within Aitken and accumulation mode sizes agree reasonably well with the measurements.

449 Vertical profiles of particle number concentrations show that predicted concentrations of small particles
450 are within one order of magnitude of the aircraft measurements. The predicted Aitken- and accumulation
451 mode number concentrations are in quite good agreement with the observational data throughout the
452 atmospheric column, while the concentrations of smaller particles are somewhat overpredicted by the
453 ACDC-based NPF scheme. Including organic condensation onto the ultrafine particles could improve
454 these predictions.

455 Overall, we consider our results very promising: a NPF scheme based on first-principles theory and no
456 artificial scaling is shown to be a promising alternative to semi-empirical approaches in the description
457 of particle formation in large scale atmospheric models.



458 **Code availability**

459 The look-up table used for the representation of particle formation rates is openly available for download
 460 at <http://www.aces.su.se/research/research-facilities/models>. The updated NPF and TUV modules are
 461 available from I. Riipinen (ilona.riipinen@aces.su.se).

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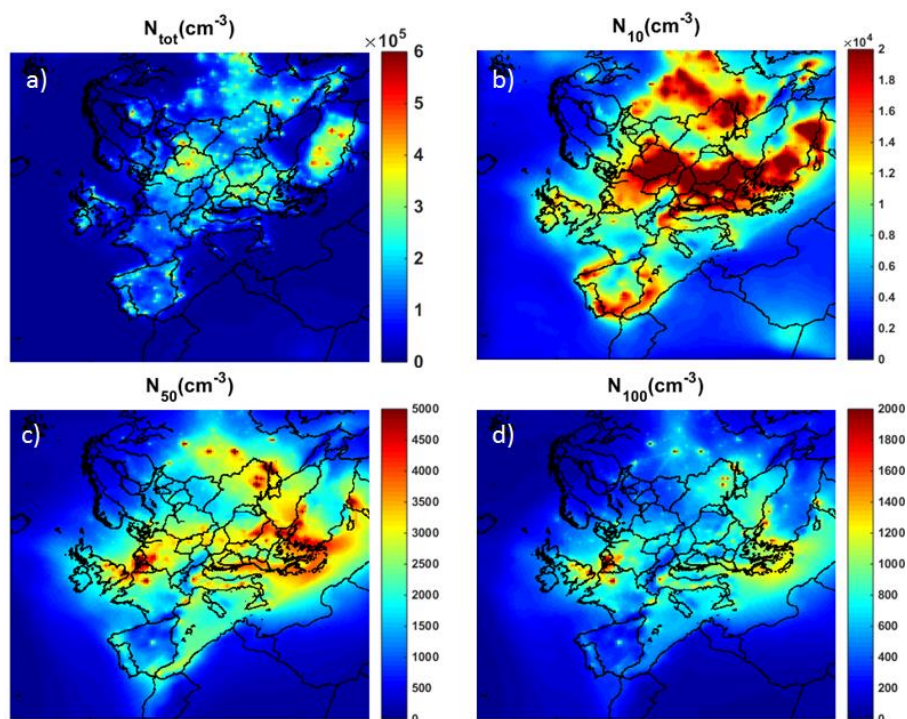
787 **Figures and figure captions**

788 Table 1. Summary of PMCAMx-UF model simulations reported in this study. The arithmetic mean of
 789 ground-level number concentration during May 2008 for particles larger than 0.8 nm (N_{tot}), 50 nm (N_{50})
 790 and 100 nm (N_{100}) is given for each simulation. DE = default emissions, NE = new emissions. The
 791 “default emissions” refer to the emissions used in Fountoukis et al., 2012 (simulation Napari-RADM-
 792 DE).

Simulation name	NPF scheme	Cloud adjustment scheme	Emissions	Domain mean number concentration (cm^{-3})		
				N_{tot}	N_{50}	N_{100}
ACDC-TUV-DE	ACDC-based	TUV	Default	59200	1300	360
ACDC-RADM-DE	ACDC-based	RADM	Default	62000	1200	340
ACDC-TUV-NE	ACDC-based	TUV	Updated	48300	1300	380
Napari-TUV-DE	Scaled Napari et al., 2002	TUV	Default	8100	1500	410
Napari-RADM-DE	Scaled Napari et al., 2002	RADM	Default	9000	1500	400

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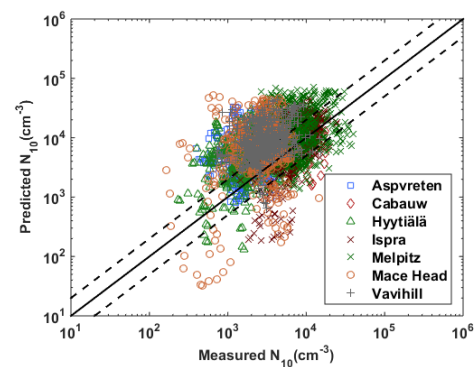
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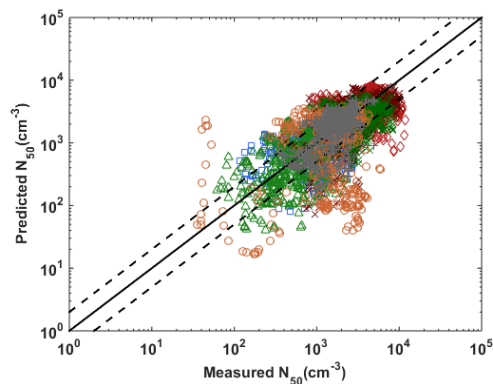
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796 Figure 1. The simulated spatial distribution of the arithmetic mean of ground-level number concentration
797 during May 2008 for particles larger than (a) 0.8 nm (N_{tot}), (b) 10 nm (N_{10}), (c) 50 nm (N_{50}), and (d)
798 nm (N_{100}). The PMCAMx-UF baseline simulation ACDC-TUV-DE is used (see Table 1). Note that
799 different color bar scales are used for the different size ranges for readability.

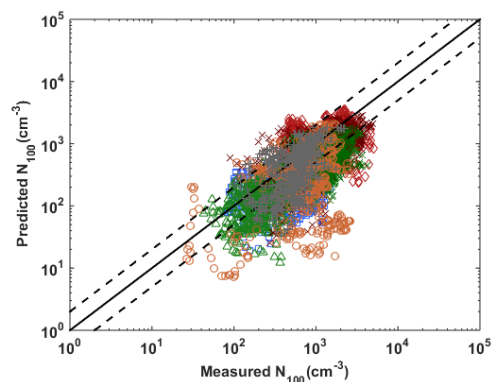
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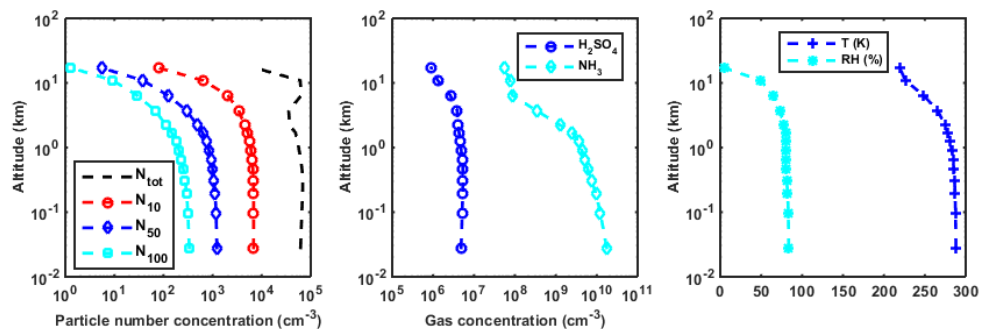
804 Figure 2. Comparison of predicted vs. measured hourly-averaged number concentration of
805 particles larger than 10 nm (N_{10}), 50 nm (N_{50}) and 100 nm (N_{100}) during May 2008 from the 7
806 EUSAAR measurement stations during the EUCAARI project. Lines corresponding to 1:1
807 (solid line), and 1:2 and 2:1 (dashed lines) are shown. The PMCAMx-UF model simulation ACDC-
808 RADM-DE is used (see Table 1).

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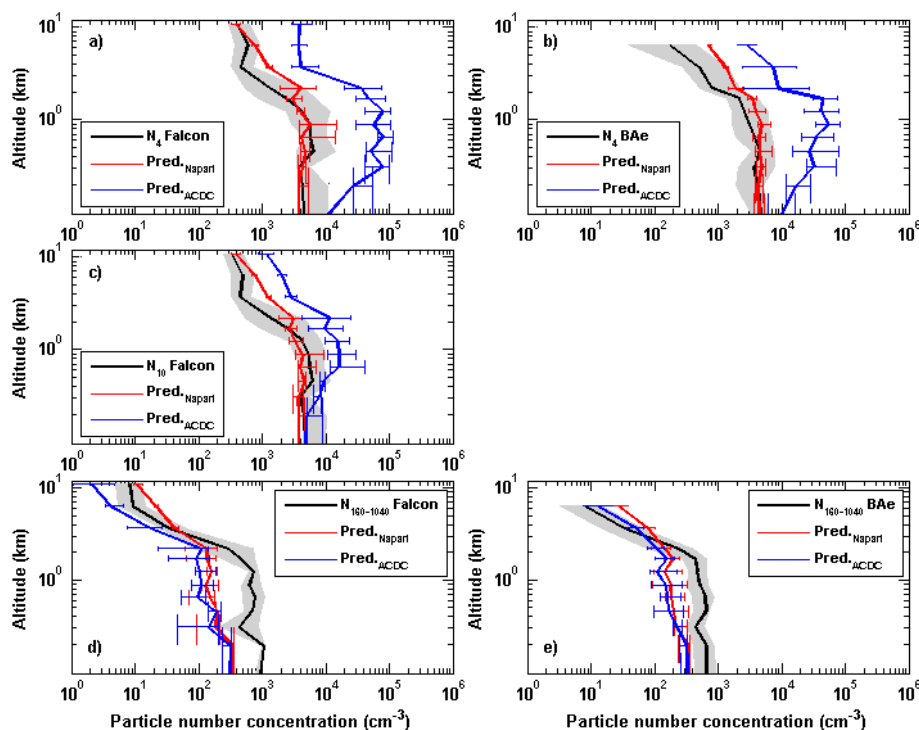
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813 Figure 3. Vertical profiles of simulated variables averaged (arithmetic mean) over May 2008 and the
814 whole simulation domain. Left panel: number concentration (cm^{-3}) of particles larger than 0.8 nm (N_{tot}),
815 10 nm (N_{10}), 50 nm (N_{50}) and 100 nm (N_{100}). Middle panel: gas phase concentration (cm^{-3}) of sulfuric
816 acid (H_2SO_4) and ammonia (NH_3). Right panel: temperature (K) and relative humidity (%). The
817 PMCAMx-UF baseline simulation ACDC-TUV-DE is used (see Table 1).

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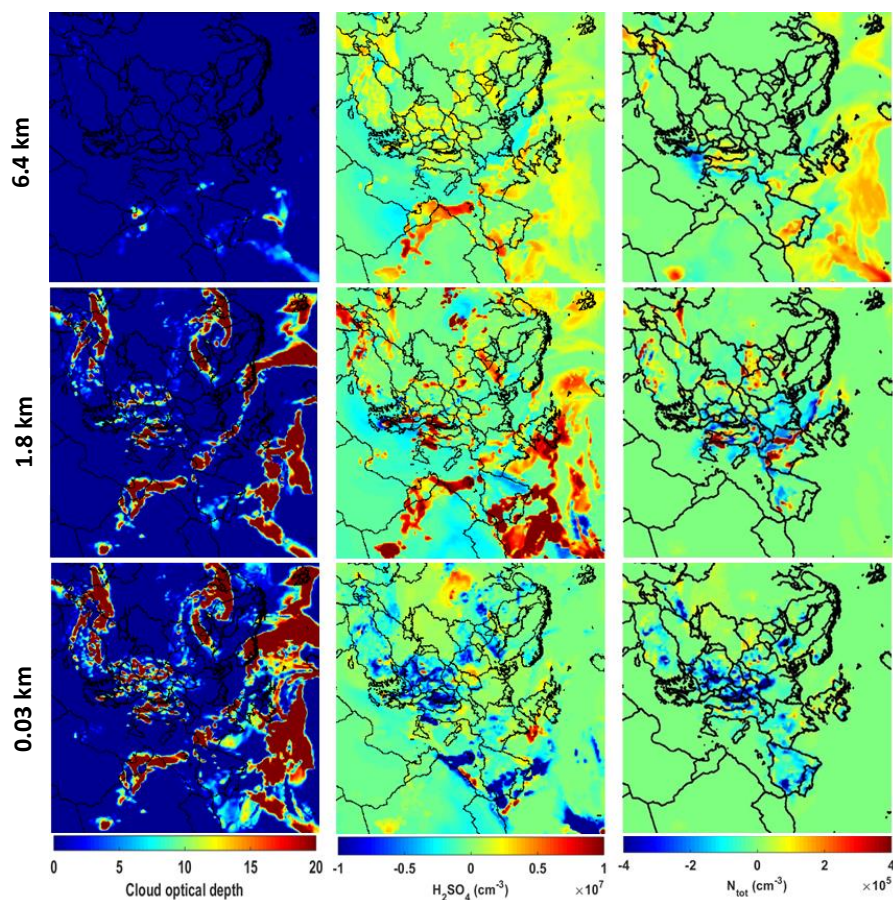


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Figure 4. Vertical profiles of measured (black) and predicted (red and blue) particle number concentrations for the size ranges: (a) and (b) Larger than 4 nm (N_4) measurements collected by Falcon and BAe 146, respectively, (c) larger than 10 nm (N_{10}) measurements collected by Falcon 20, (d) and (e) 160-1040 nm ($N_{160-1040}$) measurements collected by Falcon and BAe 146, respectively, during May 2008. Red and blue lines show the predicted particle number concentrations by the PMCAMx-UF model using ACDC-based formation rates (ACDC-TUV-DE) and scaled Napari new particle formation scheme (Napari-TUV-DE), respectively. The lines show the median values of data points within each model layer, and the error bars and grey shading indicate the values between 25-th and 75-th percentiles of the model results and observations, respectively. Concentrations are given at ambient temperature and pressure.



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837 Figure 5. Left column: the total cloud optical depth supplied by WRF meteorology model. Middle
838 column: the absolute difference between the predictions using the TUV (the simulation ACDC-TUV-
839 DE; see table 1) and RADM (the simulation ACDC-RADM-DE) radiative transfer schemes within
840 PMCAMx-UF for H_2SO_4 concentration. Right column: absolute difference between prediction using
841 TUV and RADM schemes for total particle number concentrations N_{tot} . The parameters shown in the
842 figure are snapshots on May 5, 2008 12:00 UTC at model layers 1 (mid-point altitude 0.03 km), 9 (mid-
843 point altitude 1.7 km) and 12 (mid-point altitude 6.4 km).

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