

Supplementary File:

Table S1: Descriptive analysis of particle size distribution and modes during the study period and different seasons.

	Geom. Mean (nm)	Nucleation (cm ⁻³)	Aitken (cm ⁻³)	Accumulation (cm ⁻³)	Total (cm ⁻³)
Entire Study Period					
mean	6.48e+01	7.28e+03	1.77e+04	9.82e+03	3.48e+04
std	2.20e+01	5.81e+03	1.24e+04	7.05e+03	1.99e+04
min	2.01e+01	7.61e+01	1.36e+03	4.84e+02	2.41e+03
25%	4.83e+01	2.88e+03	8.74e+03	4.83e+03	2.06e+04
50%	6.26e+01	5.74e+03	1.43e+04	8.12e+03	3.05e+04
75%	7.91e+01	1.01e+04	2.28e+04	1.27e+04	4.38e+04
max	1.66e+02	6.54e+04	9.02e+04	6.33e+04	1.43e+05
Winter					
mean	7.70e+01	5.64e+03	2.13e+04	1.42e+04	4.11e+04
std	2.05e+01	5.56e+03	1.53e+04	8.82e+03	2.44e+04
min	2.56e+01	7.61e+01	2.70e+03	1.98e+03	6.50e+03
25%	6.24e+01	1.97e+03	1.05e+04	7.79e+03	2.35e+04
50%	7.62e+01	4.01e+03	1.60e+04	1.13e+04	3.42e+04
75%	9.02e+01	7.27e+03	2.71e+04	1.85e+04	5.27e+04
max	1.43e+02	6.54e+04	9.02e+04	6.33e+04	1.43e+05
Spring					
mean	5.46e+01	1.01e+04	1.80e+04	7.65e+03	3.57e+04
std	1.90e+01	6.59e+03	1.07e+04	4.20e+03	1.62e+04
min	2.01e+01	3.69e+02	2.07e+03	1.13e+03	4.86e+03
25%	3.91e+01	5.14e+03	1.01e+04	4.52e+03	2.42e+04
50%	5.08e+01	8.82e+03	1.55e+04	6.69e+03	3.32e+04
75%	6.69e+01	1.40e+04	2.31e+04	1.03e+04	4.40e+04
max	1.19e+02	4.34e+04	5.95e+04	2.50e+04	9.36e+04
Summer					
mean	5.66e+01	6.89e+03	1.28e+04	5.62e+03	2.53e+04
std	1.92e+01	5.21e+03	8.58e+03	3.53e+03	1.37e+04
min	2.11e+01	1.94e+02	1.36e+03	4.84e+02	2.41e+03
25%	4.20e+01	2.77e+03	6.59e+03	3.05e+03	1.50e+04
50%	5.42e+01	5.47e+03	1.00e+04	4.73e+03	2.27e+04
75%	6.97e+01	9.83e+03	1.64e+04	7.45e+03	3.29e+04
max	1.30e+02	3.01e+04	4.79e+04	1.99e+04	8.54e+04
Post Monsoon					
mean	6.69e+01	8.21e+03	1.95e+04	1.15e+04	3.92e+04
std	2.06e+01	5.25e+03	1.13e+04	4.84e+03	1.66e+04
min	2.85e+01	4.39e+02	2.20e+03	2.43e+03	6.60e+03
25%	5.28e+01	4.39e+03	1.06e+04	7.76e+03	2.68e+04
50%	6.23e+01	7.19e+03	1.68e+04	1.14e+04	3.67e+04
75%	7.72e+01	1.10e+04	2.62e+04	1.47e+04	4.89e+04
max	1.66e+02	3.26e+04	7.36e+04	3.88e+04	1.11e+05

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Table S2: Calibration values applied to the dataset.

Species	RIE	RF
Ammonium	4.64	3.36 E-11
Chloride	0.57	
Nitrate	1.05	
Sulphate	0.89	
Organics	1.4	

Table S3: Comparison of PM_{2.5} (or PM₁) concentration ranges and averages across different studies in Delhi.

S. No.	Average concentration (µg/m ³)	PM type	Period of Study	Data Source	References
1	125 ± 86 (Entire study period, 15 years)	PM _{2.5}	2007-2021	CPCB, DPCC, and IMD	Chetna et al. (2022) ¹
	154 ± 51 (Highest Annual average, 2009)				
	99 ± 81 (Lowest Annual average, 2020)				
2	Annual mean in excess of 100 for each year	PM _{2.5}	2013-2019	US embassy in New Delhi	Li et al. (2019) ²
3	167.6	PM _{2.5}	Winter (Dec 2013 -Jan 2014) and Summer (June 2014)	Offline filter-based	Pant et al. (2015) ³
	12-hourly average range (3-3 - 424.9)				
	108.75 (Excluding Post Monsoon period)	NR-PM ₁ + BC	Jan 2017 to March 2018	ACSM and Aethalometer	Gani et al. (2019) ⁴
4	Daily average range (13 and above 400)				
5	140	PM _{2.5}	2017	DPCC RK Puram	Gani et al. (2019) ⁴
6	125	PM _{2.5}	2022 (Excluding the Monsoon period as in our study)	DPCC, RK Puram and CPCB, Sri Aurobindo Marg	CPCB
	Hourly Range (5.25 - 920)				

Table S4: Condensation sink (CS) thresholds for new particle formation (NPF) observed in various global locations, highlighting differences between urban, semi-urban, remote, and background regions. The table includes a comparison of CS thresholds across different environments, showing how regional pollution levels and aerosol concentrations influence the threshold for NPF.

S. No.	CS Threshold (s ⁻¹)	Region	Region Type	Reference
1	0.01	Boreal forest in Hyytiälä, Finland.	Remote	Dada et al. (2017) ⁵
2	0.039	Beijing, China	Urban	Ying Zhou et al. (2021) ⁶
3	0.02	Po Valley, Italy	Urban	Cia et al. (2024) ⁷
4	0.06	Beijing, China	Urban	Du et al. (2022) ⁸
5	0.001 to 0.002	6 Arctic regions	Remote	Brean et al. (2023) ⁹
6	0.002	Southeastern Tibetan Plateau	Remote	Lai et al. (2024) ¹⁰
7	0.007	Delhi, India	Urban	Monkkonen et al. (2005) ¹¹
8	0.1	Shanghai, China	Urban	Xiao et al. (2015) ¹²
9	0.0046	Eagle Lake, British Columbia, Canada	Remote	Andreae et al. (2022) ¹³
10	0.03	Pune, India	Semi-urban	Kanawade et al. (2014) ¹⁴
11	0.06	Kanpur, India	Semi-urban	Kanawade et al. (2014) ¹⁴
12	0.0058	Western Himalaya, India	Mountain background	Sebastian et al. (2021) ¹⁵
13	0.002	Helsinki, Finland	Urban	Hussein et al. (2008) ¹⁶
14	0.003	Leece, Italy	Urban	Dinoi et al. (2021) ¹⁷

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35 S1. Sampling Site

36 The aerosol sampling occurred inside the Indian Institute of Technology (IIT), Delhi campus, situated
37 at coordinates 28.5457° N and 77.1928° E, with an elevation of 230 meters above sea level. The
38 campus is in South Delhi and is surrounded by residential, educational, and commercial buildings,
39 representing the urban Delhi area (Figure S1). The nearest local emission source is an arterial road
40 approximately 150 meters from the sampling site.

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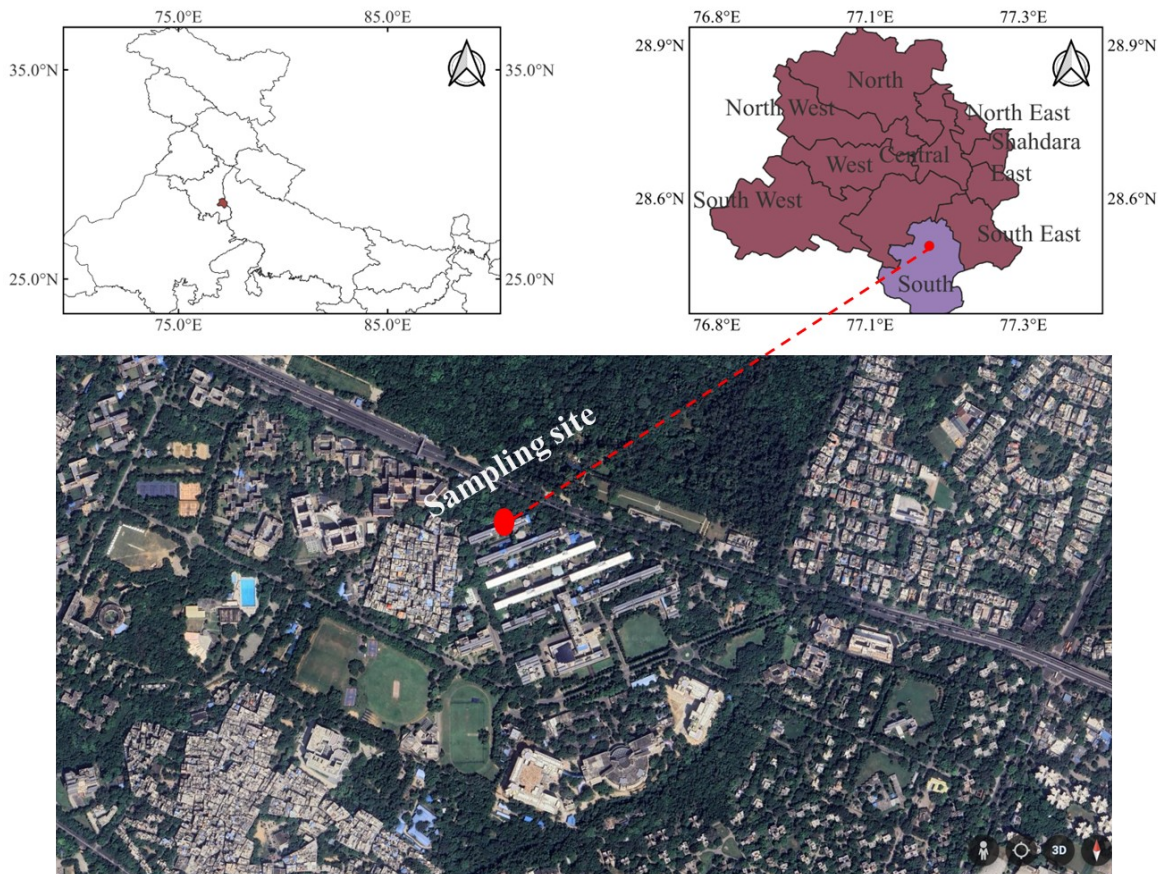


Figure S1: Location of the sampling site.

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43 S2. Instrumentation Operation and calibration

44 A PM_{2.5} cyclone was installed before the sampling inlet to remove coarse particles larger than 2.5
45 μm. The PM + Cyclone model used was URG-2000-30ED. An external pump drew ambient air into
46 the container at a flow rate of 3 L/min, with approximately 0.1 L/min of the drawn air being sampled
47 into the ACSM. The particle residence time in the sampling tube was about 5 seconds. Aerosol
48 particles were dried using a Nafion dryer before being sampled into the ACSM. Prior to the campaign,
49 the ACSM was calibrated with pure ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulphate particles following

50 standard protocols. The sampling line was placed on a rooftop (~15 m above ground level), and the
51 instruments were located inside a temperature and humidity-controlled room on the topmost floor.
52 Conditions inside the building were maintained at temperatures below 26°C and relative humidity
53 below 40%.

54 A ¼ inch (outside diameter) stainless steel tube with a flow rate of 1.7 lpm was used to draw an
55 ambient air sample inside the well-maintained and temperature-controlled room, of which 0.1 lpm
56 was subsampled into the ACSM. At the beginning of the sample intake, a URG cyclone with a cut-
57 off size of 2.5 µm was fitted to remove coarser particles. An automatic aerosol Nafion dryer was used
58 at the ACSM inlet to keep the relative humidity of the sampled air below 40 %. The sampling inlet
59 was installed on the roof directly above the instrument, giving the residence time of around 5 s in the
60 sampling line. ACSM was operated at a 10-time resolution during both winters, then averaged to an
61 hourly interval. The PM_{2.5}-Q-ACSM uses a capture vaporizer (CV) to detect PM_{2.5}, and the collection
62 efficiency (CE) taken is 1¹⁸.

63 The ionization efficiency (IE) of NO₃ and relative ionization efficiencies (RIE) of NH₄ and SO₄ were
64 estimated following the procedure suggested by Crenn et al. (2015)¹⁹. A differential mobility analyser
65 (DMA) was used to select monodisperse 300 nm particles of NH₄NO₃ and (NH₄)₂SO₄ size within a
66 wide range of concentrations. The particles were sampled into a condensation particle counter (CPC)
67 and the ACSM.

68 Using the mass computed using the known particle size and the number concentrations from CPC, t
69 he response factors of ACSM were compared to determine IE. The calibration values are given in
70 table S2.

71 0.28 lpm of the ambient air was drawn into the SMPS following the drying through Nafion dryer.
72 Further days hours with less than 75 % of the data were removed from the analysis. Measurements

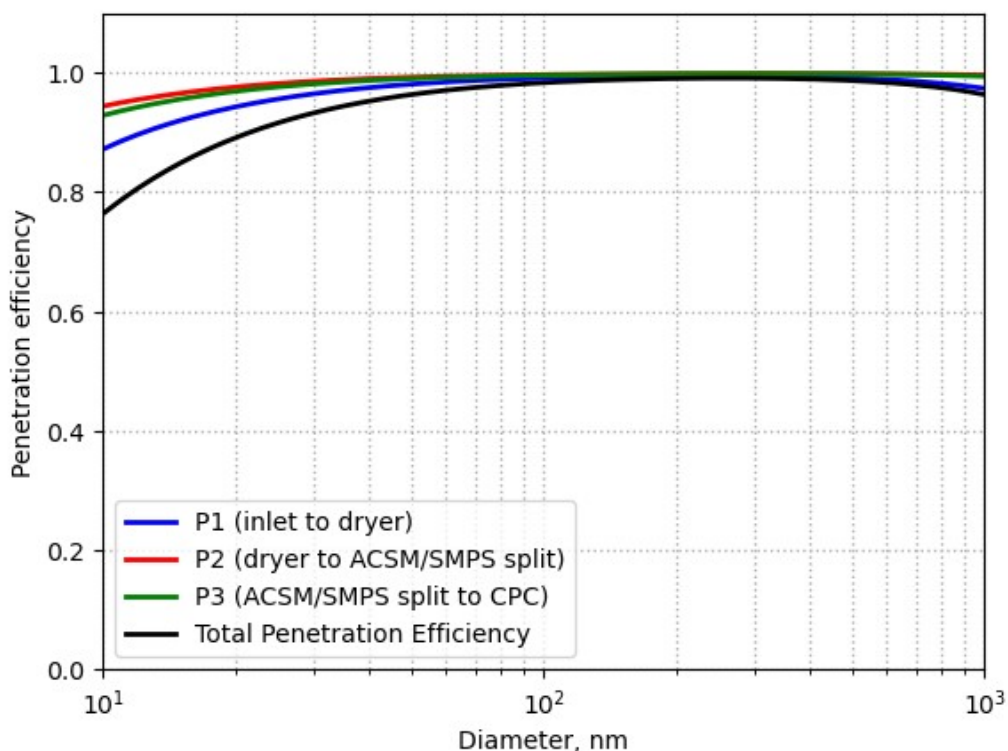


Figure S2: Transmission efficiency of the sampling line, computed for both diffusion²¹ and settling²⁰ losses.

73 during rainy days were not considered for analysis. The diffusion and settling losses of particles in
74 sampling lines were estimated using the calculations.^{20,21} We adjusted the measured PNSDs to
75 account for the losses in transmission efficiency (Figure S2). Subsequently, we determined the total
76 and number of concentrations for each size mode. Additionally, we calculated the median diameter
77 using the updated PNSDs. The quality check of data included cleaning the data, removing outliers,
78 and discarding abnormal datasets.

79 S3. Density and mass closure

80 We estimated the mass concentration of PM₁ from the PNSD measurements of SMPS using a constant
81 density. In this study, the density of PM_{2.5}, including the non-refractory portion of aerosols and black
82 carbon (BC), was estimated to be approximately 1.6 g/cm³. Previous studies in Asia^{22–24} reported aerosol
83 densities between 1.3 and 1.6 g/cm³, while²⁵ used a density of 1.7 g/cm³ for aerosol mass calculations
84 in Delhi. In this study we have used a density of 1.6 g/cm³. This density provides a good mass closure,
85 as evident from the plot of PM_{2.5} vs. PM₁ (Figure S3). PM_{2.5} and PM₁ are in good agreement. There are
86 some points when PM₁ was greater than PM_{2.5} however we have removed them from our analysis.

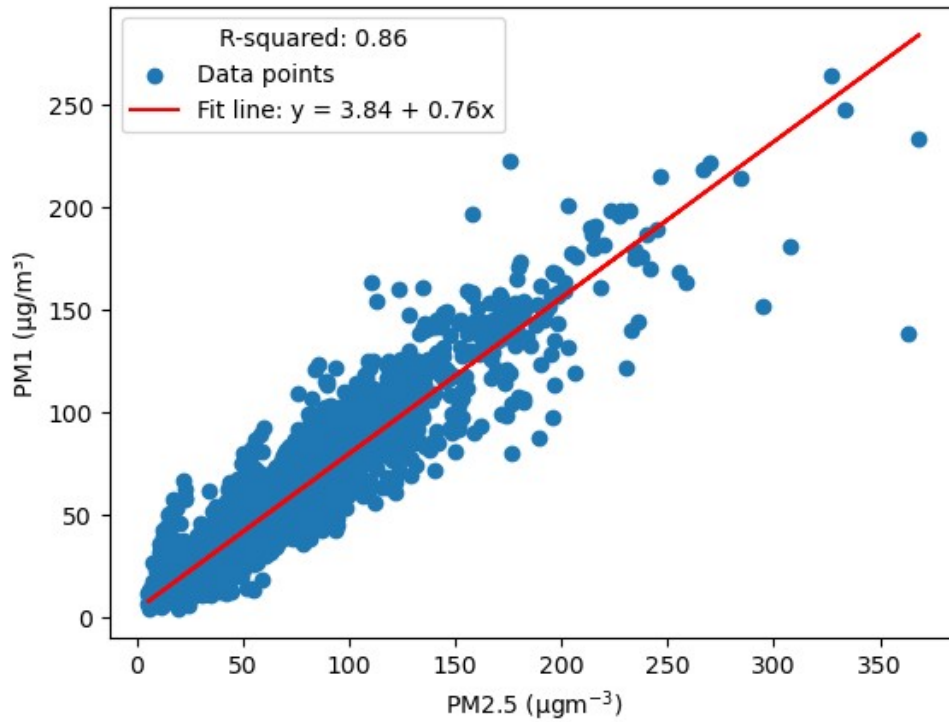


Figure S3: Scatter plot between PM_1 (calculated using SMPS PNSD assuming a density of 1.6 g/cc) and $PM_{2.5}$ (NR- $PM_{2.5}$ + BC).

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92 **S4. ALWC Measurement**

93 The ISORROPIA II model ignores curvature and surface tension effects and assumes that aerosol
 94 water intake does not affect ambient water vapor pressure, resulting in aerosol water activity (a_w)
 95 equalling RH. The ZSR mixing rule²⁶ is used to calculate ALWC.

$$96 \quad ALWC = \sum \frac{M_i}{m_{oi}(a_w)} \quad (S1)$$

97 where ALWC denotes the condensed aerosol water mass concentration (kg m^{-3} air), M_i denotes the
 98 concentration of i^{th} component (mol m^{-3} air), and $m_{oi}(a_w)$ is the molality of an aqueous binary solution
 99 of the i^{th} electrolyte with the same a_w (i.e., relative humidity) as the multicomponent solution.

100 For organics, the following equation was used to calculate the contribution to ALWC:

$$101 \quad W_o = \frac{m_{org}\rho_w}{\rho_{org}} \frac{\kappa_{org}}{(1/RH - 1)} \quad (S2)$$

102 Where m_{org} denotes the organics mass concentration as measured by ACSM, ρ_w (1 g/cm^3) and ρ_{org}
 103 (1.5 g/cm^3) represent the densities of water and organics, respectively, and κ_{org} denotes the

104 hygroscopicity of organic aerosols taken as 0.1. The uncertainties related to hygroscopicity of
105 organics have been discussed in our other paper.²⁷

106 **S5. Source apportionment of analysis of organics using positive matrix factorization (PMF)**

107 Source apportionment (SA) through a positive matrix factorization (PMF) was performed on the mass
108 spectra of the OA aerosol in each season individually to gain insights into the effect sources and
109 atmospheric processes on OA. SA of OA aerosols was deconvoluted into five factors in the summer
110 and winter seasons, while 3-factor solution was identified in the post monsoon season. The factors
111 were resolved and identified based on distinct spectral signals in specific factors (Fig. S4). Also, this
112 spectral factor was correlated with the factor profile of the AMS Spectral Database, which is available
113 at <http://cires.colorado.edu/jimenez-group/AMSsd/>).

114 The factors resolved in the current analysis are HOA, BBOA, LVOOA1, LVOOA2, and SVOOA in
115 summer and winter, while in post monsoon, it is deconvoluted into LVOOA1, LVOOA2, and POA.
116 The HOA factor profile is characterized by the distinct signals of primary alkyl fragments (C_xH_y
117 groups) at m/z 27, 41, 43, 55, 57, 69 and 71. BBOA profile has distinct signals of m/z 60 and m/z 73,
118 which are linked to the anhydrous sugar signals.²⁸ SOA factors are characterized by the distinct
119 signals of the m/z 43 and m/z 44 (C₂H₃O⁺ and CO₂⁺). These SOA factors are surrogates for the
120 secondary aerosol formation in the summer and winter. Mass spectra profile factors in different
121 seasons and details regarding each factor's temporal and diel variation in different seasons are
122 discussed below (Figure S4).

123 The BBOA factor exhibited discernible marker peaks corresponding to biomass burning markers,
124 namely m/z 60, 73. The enhanced peaks observed at m/z 60 suggest the presence of Laevoglucosan.
125 Laevoglucosan is associated with C₂H₄O₂⁺ (a fragment with a mass of 60) and is frequently
126 employed as a characteristic marker of biomass burning in ACMS-AMS-based studies.²⁹ The
127 biomass burning factor also contributed 65% of the m/z 73 anhydrous sugar signals, which are widely
128 recognized as reliable indicators of wood-related combustion processes.²⁸ Resolved HOA factor had
129 clear spectral markers of primary alkyl fragments like m/z's 41, 43, 55, and 57, which are identified
130 for the majors for this factor. The LVOOA1 and LVOOA 2 mass spectra are distinguished by distinct
131 peaks at m/z 44 or CO₂⁺, which are tracer fragments used to label the oxygenated organic aerosol
132 (OOA).²⁹ Both OOA-1 and OOA-FW mass spectra demonstrated a significant correlation with low
133 volatile oxygenated organic aerosol (LVOOA) profiles (Pearson R = 0.93, 0.94 for OOA-1 and OOA-
134 2, respectively), consistent with standard profiles.³⁰

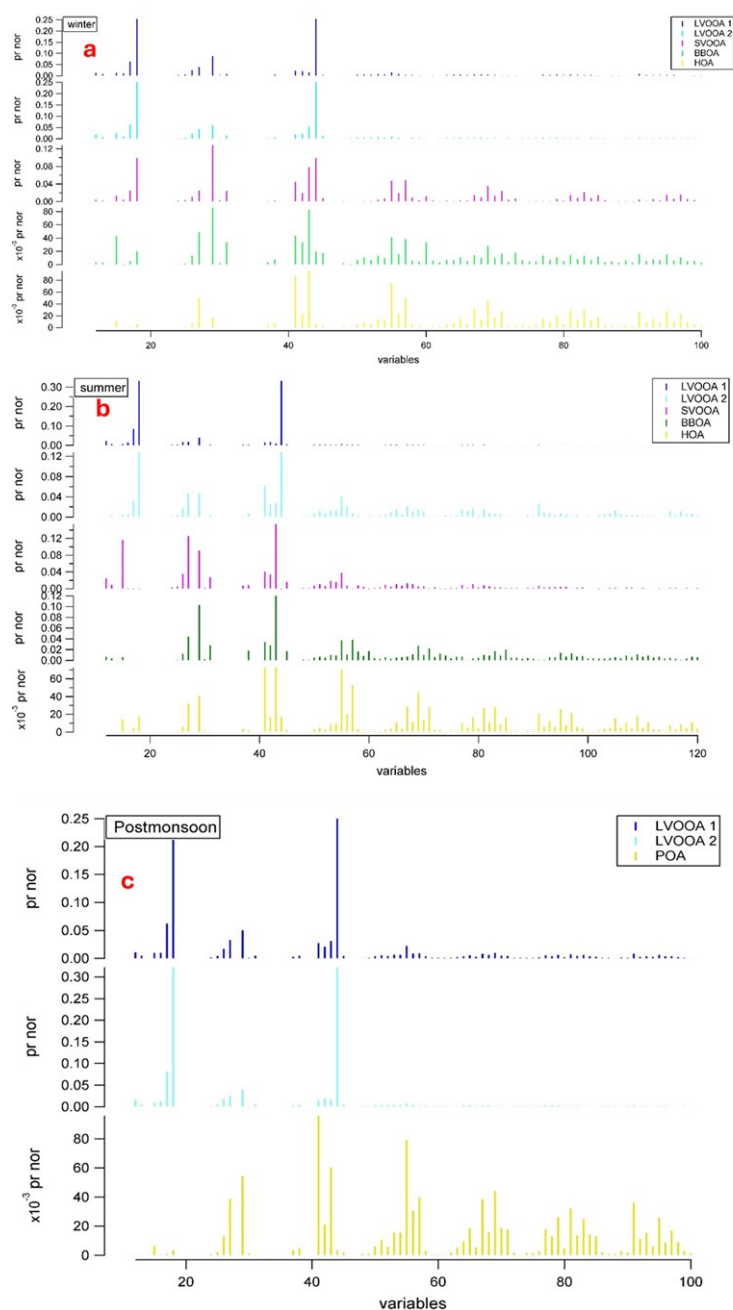


Figure S4: Factor profiles of resolved organic aerosol factors during different seasons.

135 S6. NPF Identification

136 In addition to these two features, Delhi being a polluted city with continuous influence of traffic and
 137 other primary emissions, we also used we plotted temporal variation of primary species, such as black
 138 carbon, NO_x, and CO, to rule out the primary emissions as the out the source of new mode of particles.
 139 ³¹ We also looked at the time variations of different modes of PNC, with a simultaneous increase in
 140 the concentration of all modes indicating a change in meteorological conditions or emissions.
 141 Furthermore, if the particle growth rates in an NPF event can be accurately predicted from the
 142 temporal evolution of PNSDs, it is categorised as a ‘Type I’ event, otherwise as Type II event. Figure

143 S5 (a -d): Diel variation of trace gas concentrations and meteorological conditions. NPF events were
 144 classified based on the PNSD in which the appearance of fresh particles in the nucleation mode size
 145 ranges (<25 nm) showing signs of growth independent of the meteorological conditions during that
 146 day. Plots of trace gases, mode PNCs and meteorological conditions are given in Figure S5 and S6.
 147 Furthermore, we used the diel variations of BC to validate the secondary origin of nucleation mode
 148 particles, as BC serves as an excellent proxy for primary emissions ^{32,33}. The lack of correlation
 149 between the peaks in BC and the timing of nucleation events further supports the secondary nature of
 150 these particles. The diel patterns of BC observed during the selected NPF events, as shown in Figure
 151 S7, illustrate that the nucleation events occurred independently of the primary emissions typically
 152 reflected in BC concentrations. This highlights the role of secondary processes in the formation of
 153 nucleation mode particles.

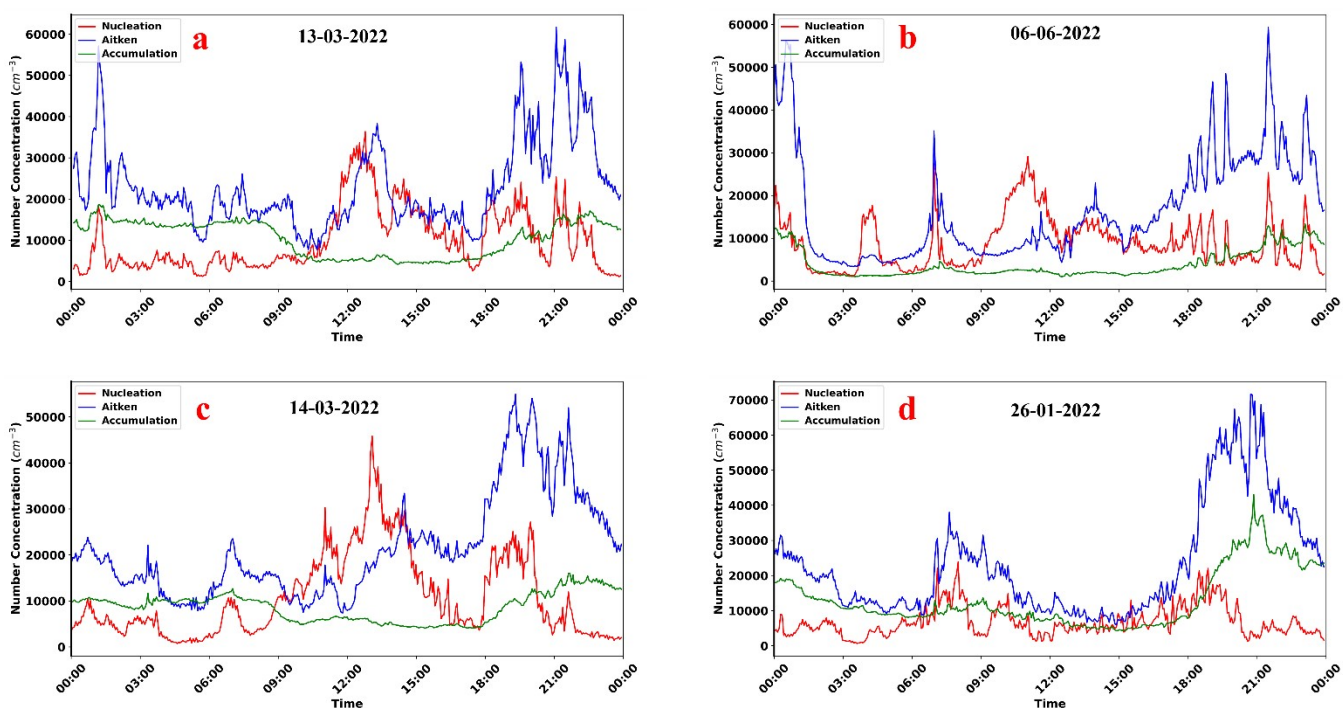


Figure S5: Diurnal variation of PN concentrations of nucleation, Aitken, and accumulation modes. As evident from the first three plots (a, b and c, number concentration of nucleation mode starts shows bursts during daytime on NPF events. In last plot (d), no burst of nucleation is observed during daytime, hence it's a non-NPF event.

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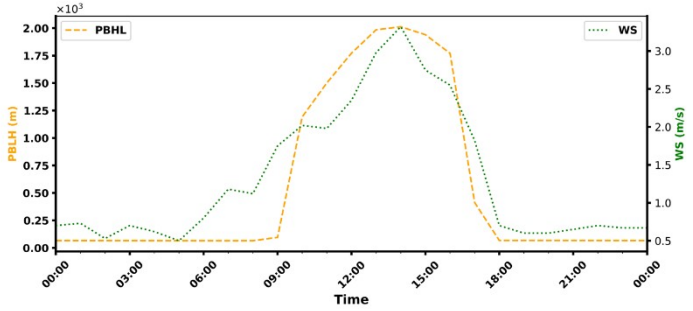
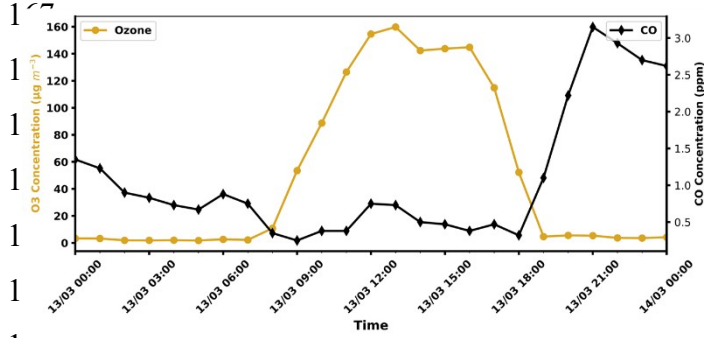
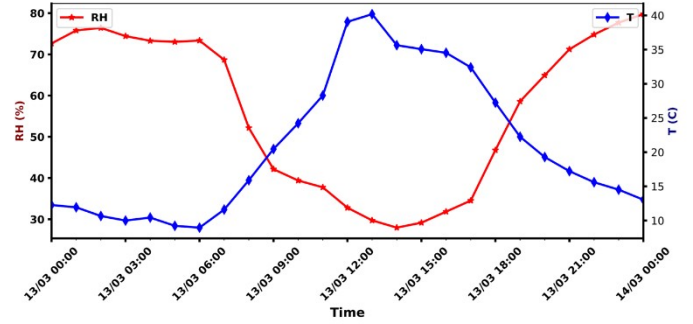
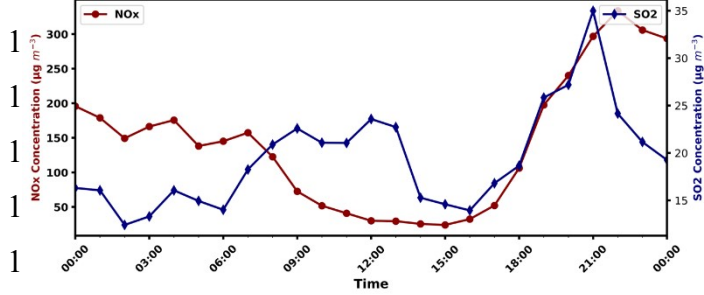
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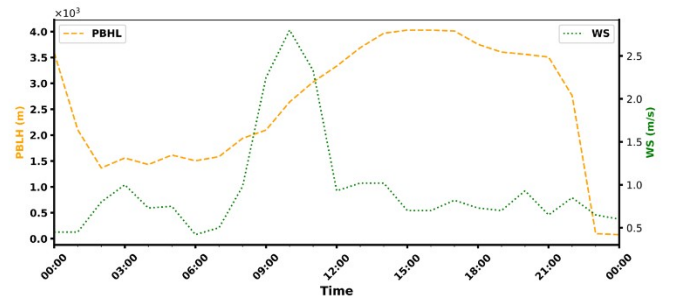
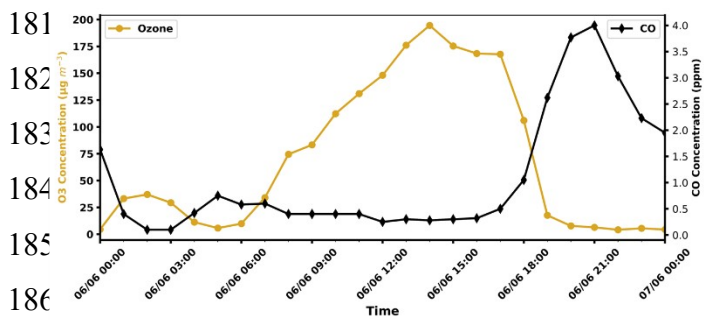
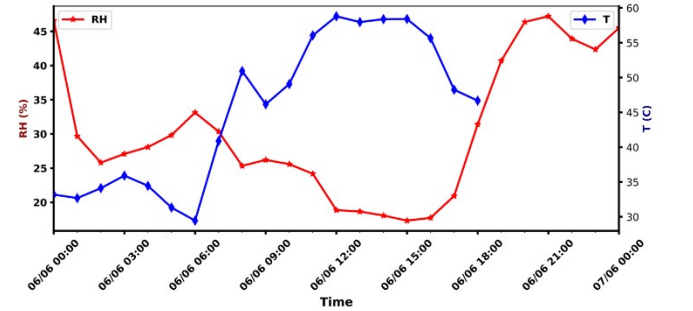
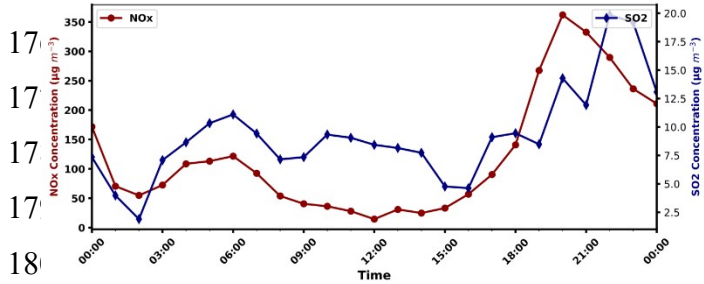
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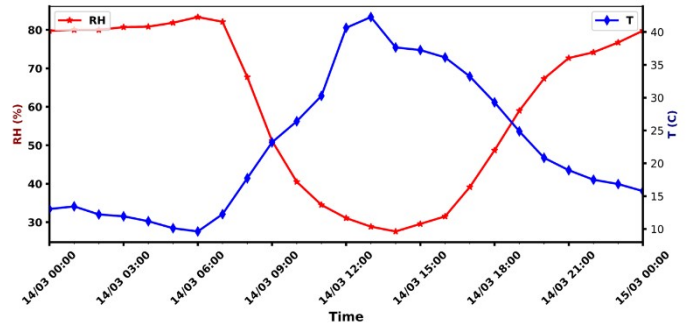
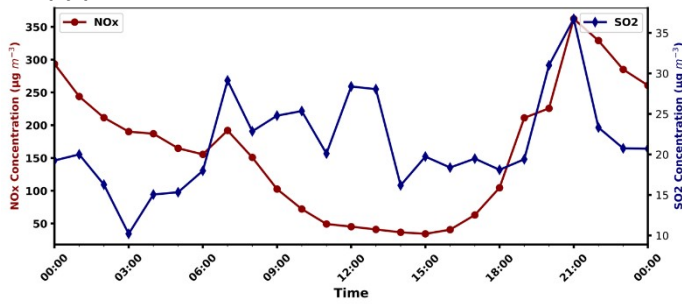
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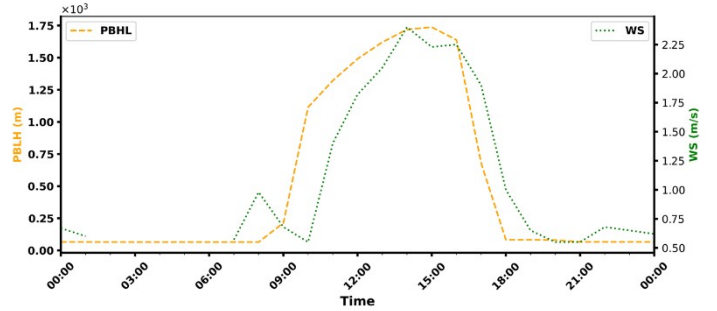
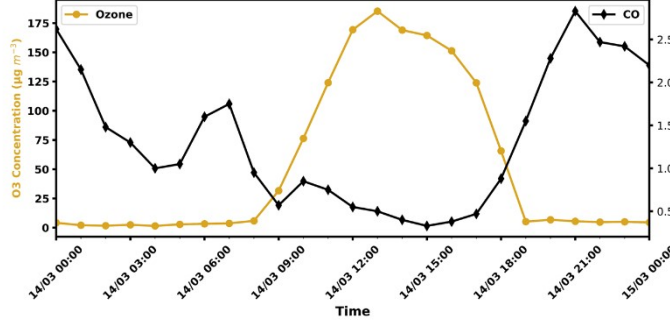
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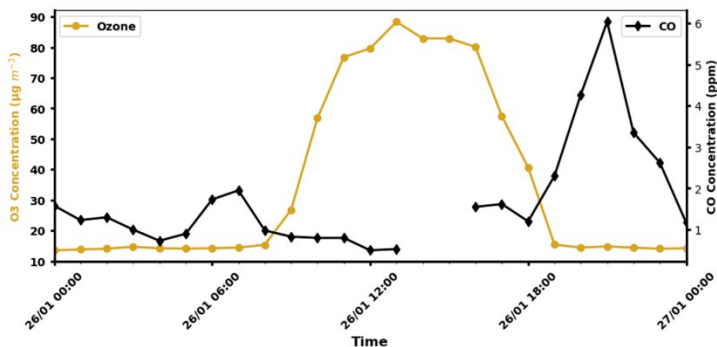
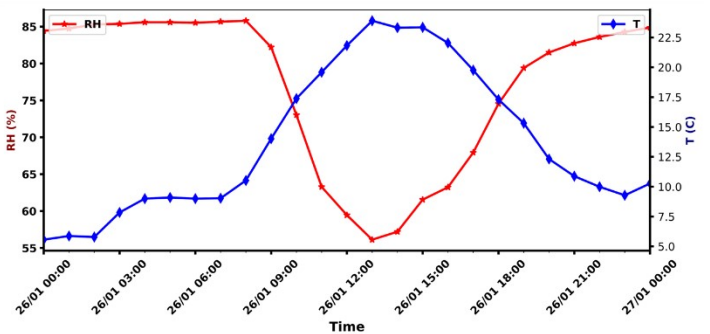
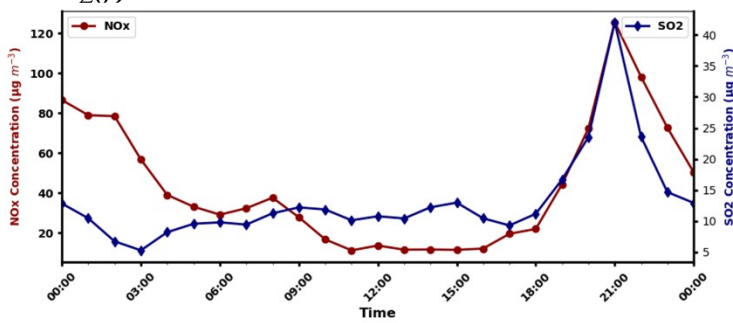
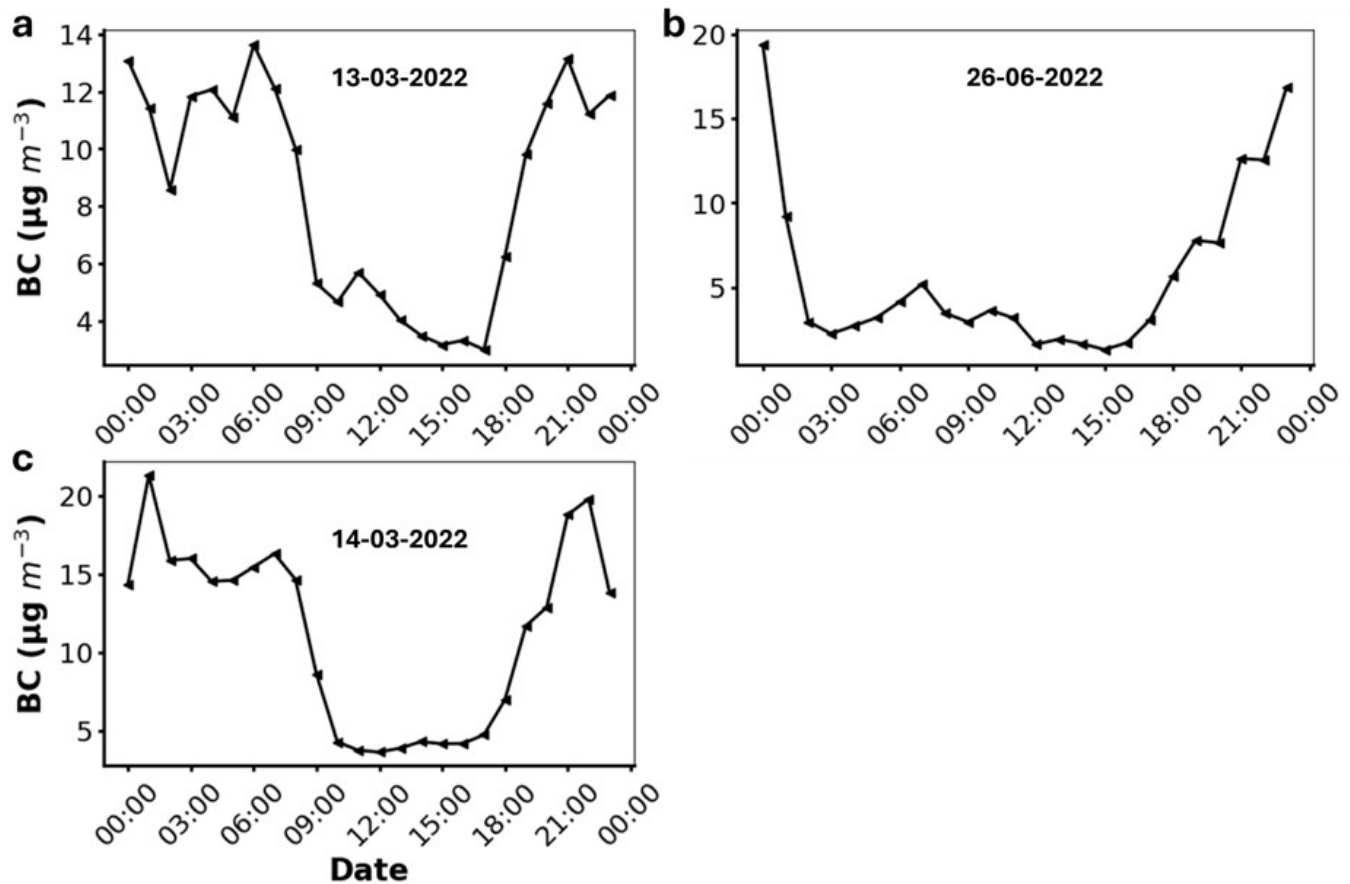


Figure S6 (a -d): Diurnal variation of trace gas concentrations and meteorological conditions. NPF events were classified based on the PNSD in which the appearance of fresh particles in the nucleation mode size ranges (<25 nm) showing signs of growth independent of the meteorological conditions during that day.



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220 *Figure S7: Diel variation of Black Carbon (BC) concentrations on selected days. The absence*
 221 *of significant daytime peaks in BC concentrations, particularly between 9:00 AM and 6:00 PM,*
 222 *suggests limited influence from secondary formation during the day and reinforces the*
 223 *identification of BC as a proxy for primary emission sources, largely driven by anthropogenic*
 224 *activities during nighttime and early morning hours. This pattern closely mirrors the diel profile*
 225 *of CO, further confirming the primary nature of the observed nucleation events.*

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227 **S7. Apparent Formation rate (J_{10})**

228 The apparent formation rate of 10 nm particles (J_{10}) was calculated using the following equation³⁴:

$$229 \quad J_{10} = \frac{dN_{10-25}}{dt} + CoagS \cdot N_{10-25} + \frac{GR_{10-25}}{15} \cdot N_{10-25} \quad S3$$

230 The right hand side of the Eq. (S3) includes the measured change of the particle concentration per
 231 time interval (first term), the loss by coagulation scavenging (second term) and the growth out of the
 232 specific size range at 25 nm (third term). Where, N_{10-25} is the particle concentration in the 10-25 nm
 233 range, representing nucleation mode. The GR is the growth rate of nucleation mode particles.

234 $CoagS$ is the coagulation sink for particles of diameter D_{pi} (representative size of nucleation mode;
 235 15 nm) and is derived from the size distribution.³⁵

$$236 \quad \text{CoagS}_i = \sum_j K_{ij} N_j \quad \text{S4}$$

237 Here N_j is the particle number concentration of the j th size bin, and K_{ij} ($\text{cm}^3 \text{No}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) is the
 238 coagulation coefficient between particles of the j th bin (diameter D_{pj}) and i th bin.³⁶

$$239 \quad K_{ij} = 2\pi(D_i + D_j)(D_{pi} + D_{pj}) \left(\frac{D_{pi} + D_{pj}}{D_{pi} + D_{pj} + 2(g_i^2 + g_j^2)^{1/2}} + \frac{8(D_i + D_j)}{(\tilde{c}_i^2 + \tilde{c}_j^2)^{1/2}(D_{pi} + D_{pj})} \right)^{-1} \quad \text{S5}$$

240 where

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{c}_i &= \left(\frac{8kT}{\pi m_i} \right)^{1/2} \\ l_i &= \frac{8D_i}{\pi \tilde{c}_i} \\ g_i &= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3D_{pi} l_i} \left[(D_{pi} + l_i)^3 - (D_{pi}^2 + l_i^2)^{3/2} \right] - D_{pi} \\ D_i &= \frac{kTC_c}{3\pi\mu D_{pi}} \end{aligned}$$

241

242 S8. H₂SO₄ estimation

243 Measuring sulfuric acid gases in the lower troposphere is challenging due to their generally low
 244 ambient concentrations, typically ranging from 10^6 to 10^7 molecules/cm³. Various methods have been
 245 proposed to estimate ambient sulfuric acid concentrations based on observations such as SO₂.
 246 Previous studies^{37–39} have suggested different approaches in this regard. For instance, Petäjä et al.
 247 (2009)³⁹ introduced a linear method to approximate observed H₂SO₄ concentration in Hyytiälä,
 248 southern Finland, while Lu et al. (20119) proposed a nonlinear method, presenting several proxies
 249 for gaseous sulfuric acid concentration. Their study indicated that compared to the linear method, a
 250 nonlinear relationship offers more accurate H₂SO₄ concentration estimates, particularly in Beijing.
 251 Additionally, Mikkonen et al. (2011)³⁸ utilized another sulfuric acid nonlinear proxy based on long-
 252 term observations in various locations. Dada et al (2020)³⁷ proxies for sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄)
 253 concentrations were derived using measurements from four distinct locations: a boreal forest in
 254 Hyytiälä, Finland; a rural Mediterranean site in Agia Marina, Cyprus; an urban area in Budapest,
 255 Hungary; and a megacity in Beijing, China. These proxies were based on a combination of the
 256 identified sources and sinks of H₂SO₄.

257 Despite their utility, these methods carry significant uncertainties, as few studies have explored their
 258 accuracy across diverse locations, and none have been tested in complex environments like Delhi.

259 Despite these limitations, we have utilized the proxy provided by Dada et al. (2020)³⁷, which aligns
260 with measurements in Beijing, a city resembling Delhi regarding complexity and pollution levels.

261 **S9. Estimating Hygroscopic Growth Factors**

262 **Mass-Based Hygroscopic Growth Factor** ($G_f(\text{mass based})$): The size-based hygroscopic
263 based growth factors (G_f) is defined as the the ratio of size of the wet aerosol particle to the
264 size of the aerosol particle particle at dry conditions (RH < 20%). It's a function of chemical
265 composition, RH and initial size of the dry particle. In our case we don't have the measurements
266 of hygroscopic growth factor, so employed a different approach to estimate the hygroscopic
267 growth factor. First we estimated ALWC using the ISSOROPIA II as discussed in section S4.
268 Then the mass based hygroscopic size growth factor was estimated as;

$$269 \quad G_f(\text{mass based}) = \frac{PM_{2.5} + ALWC}{PM_{2.5}} \quad \text{S6}$$

270 Where $PM_{2.5}$ is the dry aerosol mass at a particular RH condition and ALWC is the aerosol
271 liquid water content associated with $PM_{2.5}$ at those RH conditions.

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273 **Size-Based Hygroscopic Growth Factor (G_f):**

274 Since particle density changes with water absorption, we need to account for this to estimate
275 the size-based hygroscopic growth factor. The size-based growth factor (G_f) is calculated
276 using:

$$277 \quad G_f = \frac{G_f(\text{mass - based})^{\frac{1}{3}} \times \rho_{dry} \times G_f(\text{mass - based})}{\rho_{dry} + \rho_{water} \times (G_f(\text{mass - based}) - 1)} \quad \text{S7}$$

278 Where ρ_{dry} is the density of dry $PM_{2.5}$ estimated as 1.6 g cm^{-3} based on the chemical
279 composition of $PM_{2.5}$ and ρ_{water} is the density of water taken as 1 g cm^{-3} .

280 This method estimates the hygroscopic growth of bulk $PM_{2.5}$, without considering size-specific
281 effects, using the chemical composition used was average daytime chemical composition of
282 $PM_{2.5}$.

283 The plot of hygroscopic growth vs RH is shown in the figure S18.

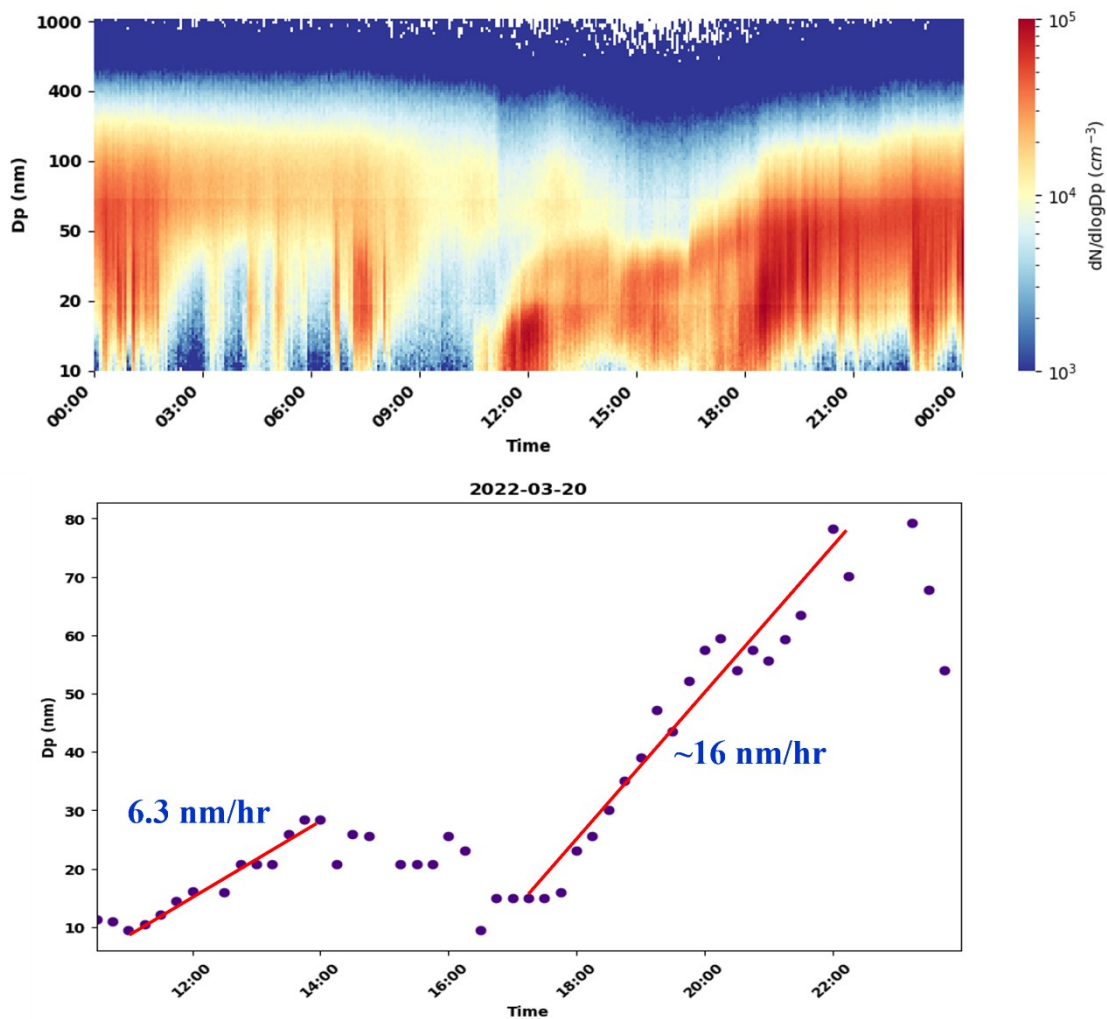


Figure S8: Daytime growth rate of nucleation mode particles calculated as the slope of a linear fit to the geometric mean of nucleation mode particles over time. The plot also shows a more rapid growth rate of particles observed during the evening hours, calculated similarly.

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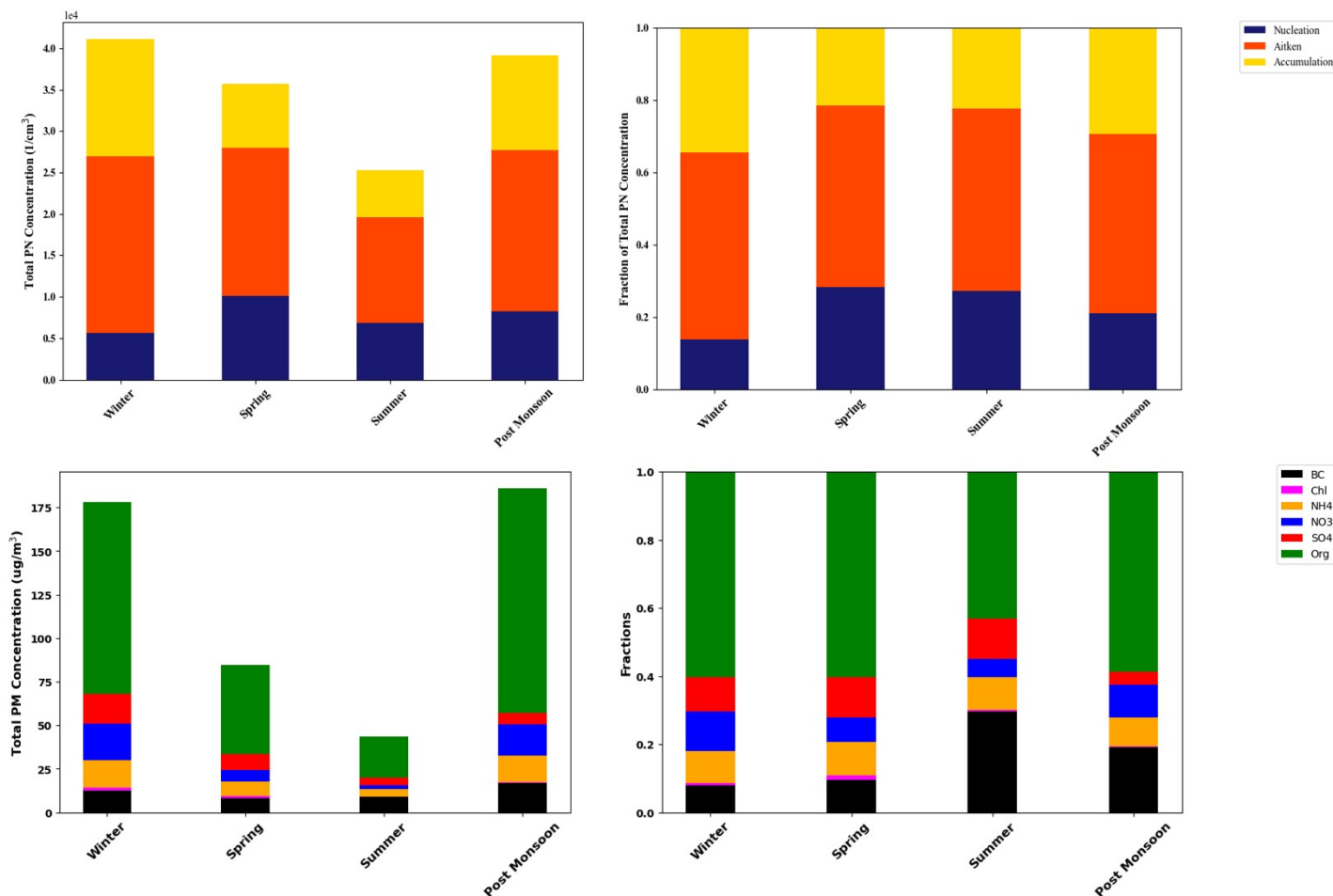


Figure S9: Average particle number (PN) and $PM_{2.5}$ levels for each season by mode and components, respectively.. The modes are based on scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS) observations, namely nucleation (10-25 nm), Aitken (25-100 nm), and accumulation (100-1000 nm) modes. The $PM_{2.5}$ species are organics (Org), chloride (Chl), ammonium (NH_4), nitrate (NO_3), sulfate (SO_4), and black carbon (BC).

Quantitative analysis of the plots reveals that PN levels follow the seasonal trends of $PM_{2.5}$ levels but not in a directly proportional manner. During the winter season, PN levels reach approximately $40,000\text{ cm}^{-3}$ while $PM_{2.5}$ levels are around $175\text{ }\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. In the spring, PN levels decrease to about $30,000\text{ cm}^{-3}$ as $PM_{2.5}$ levels drop to approximately $125\text{ }\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The summer season shows a further reduction in both, with PN levels around $20,000\text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $PM_{2.5}$ levels at about $50\text{ }\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Post-monsoon, PN levels rise again to around $35,000\text{ cm}^{-3}$, similar to winter levels, whereas $PM_{2.5}$ levels return to approximately $175\text{ }\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

However, the proportional changes are not consistent. For instance, while the PN levels in winter are about twice those in summer, the $PM_{2.5}$ levels in winter are more than three times the summer levels. This indicates that while PN levels and $PM_{2.5}$ levels exhibit parallel seasonal trends, the changes in PN levels are less pronounced compared to the changes in $PM_{2.5}$ levels across different seasons.

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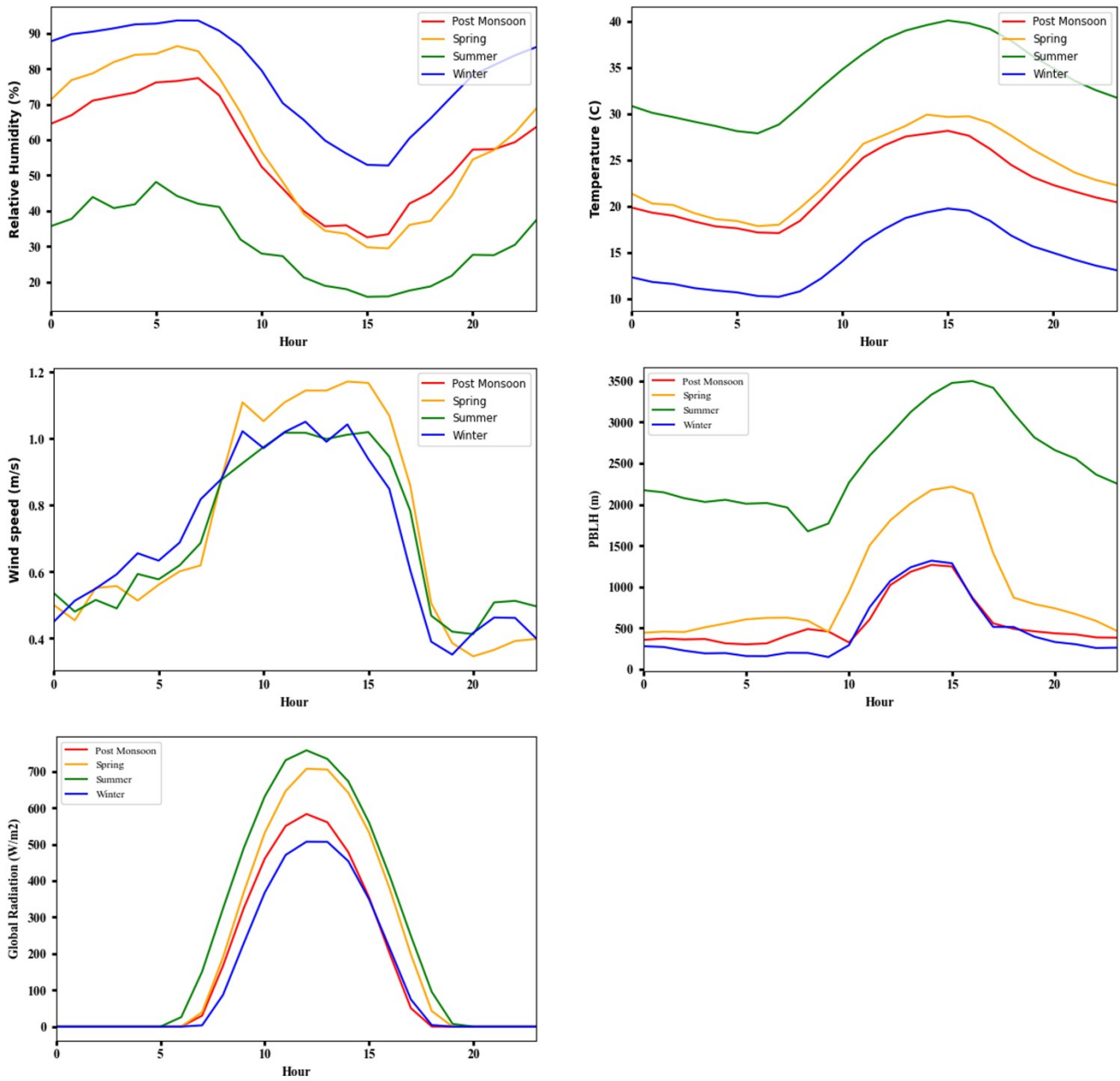


Figure S10: Diurnal variation of meteorological parameters during different seasons.

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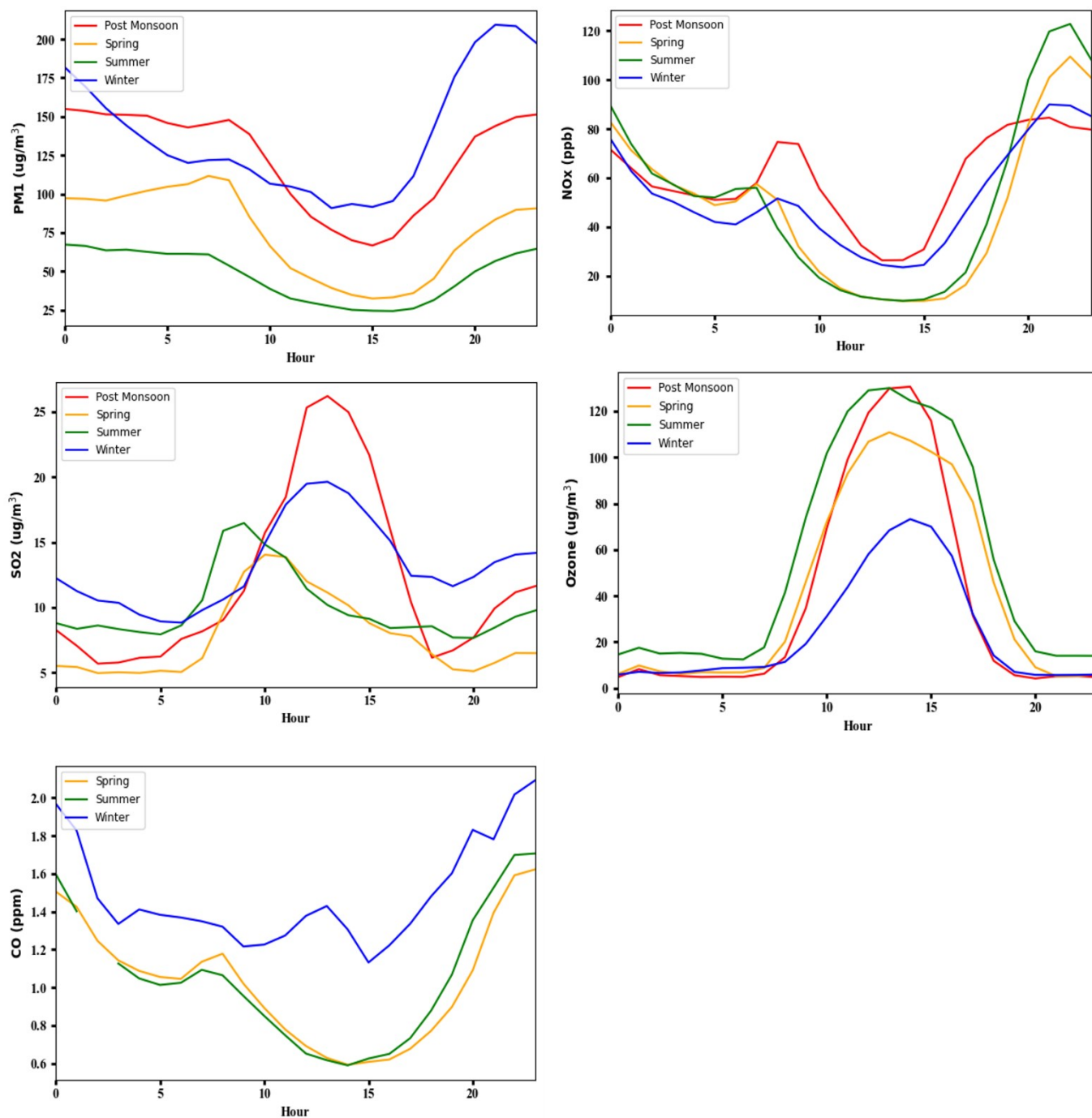


Figure S11: Diurnal variation of trace pollutants during different seasons.

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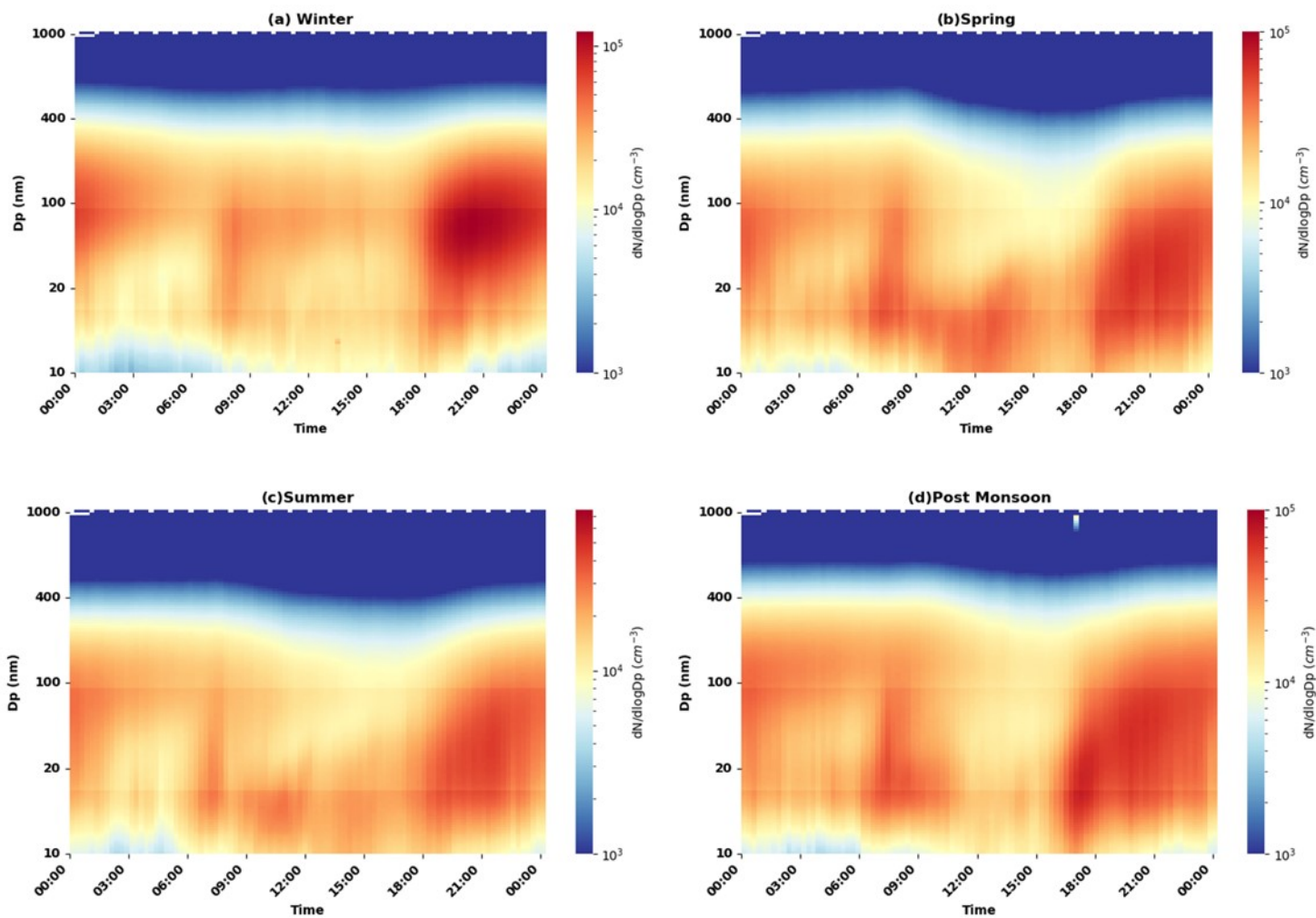


Figure S12: PNSD Heatmaps during different seasons. On y-axis is particle diameter (D_p), on x-axis is time of the day and colour intensity represent particle number concentration.

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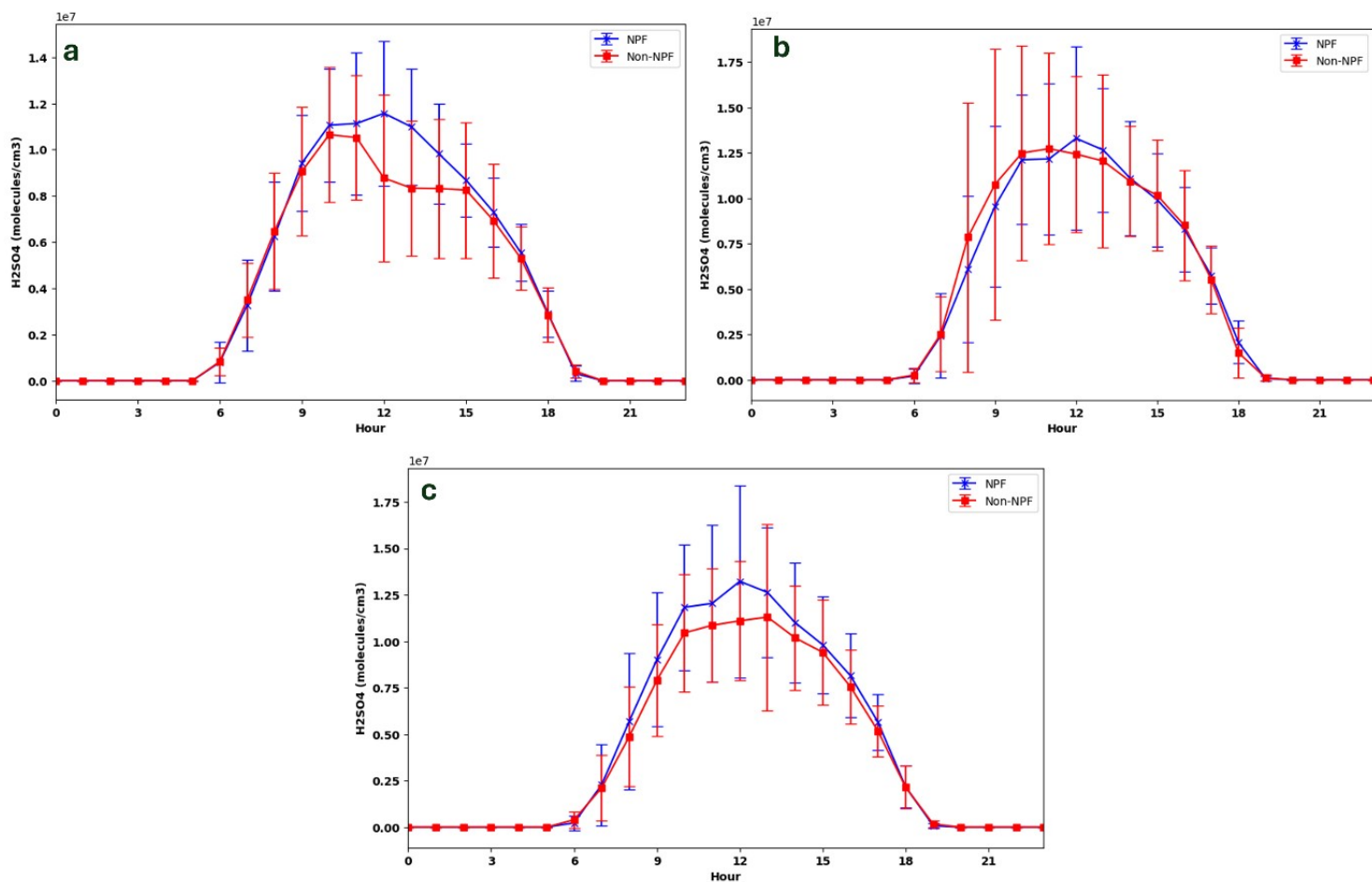


Figure S13:(a and b) Comparison of average daytime hours variation of H_2SO_4 proxy concentration between NPF and non-NPF days during low CS ($<0.03\text{ s}^{-1}$) and medium CS (0.03 to 0.06 s^{-1}); (c) Comparison of average daytime hours variation of H_2SO_4 proxy concentration between NPF and non-NPF days spring and summer seasons only when most of observed our NPF events occurred.

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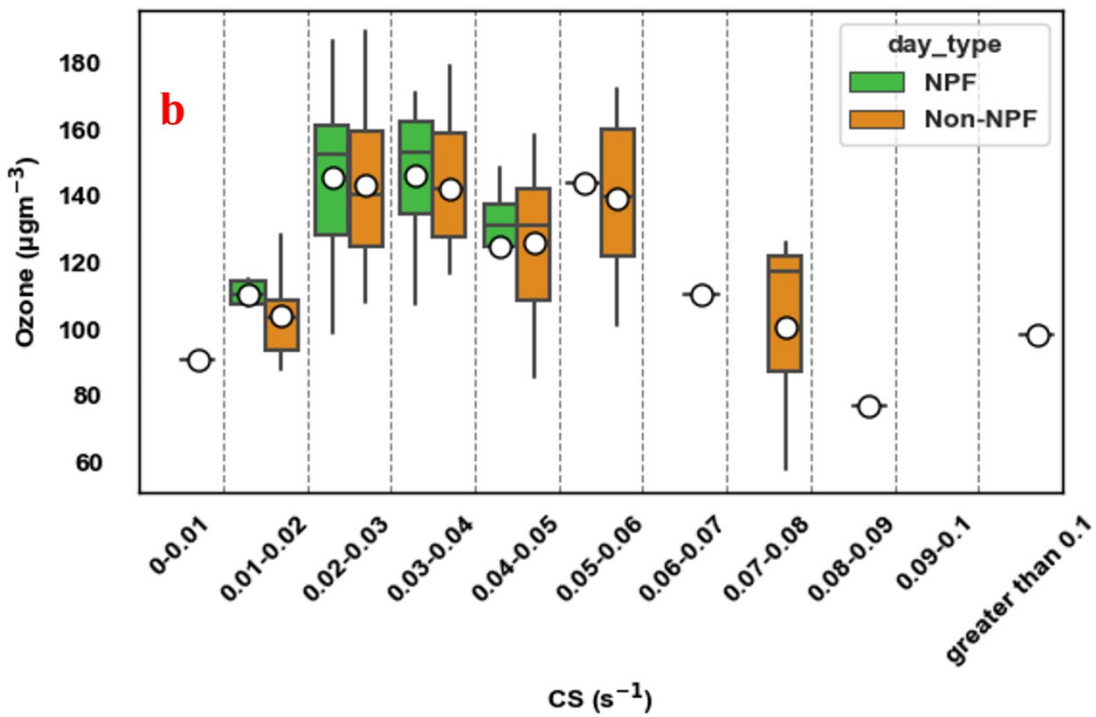
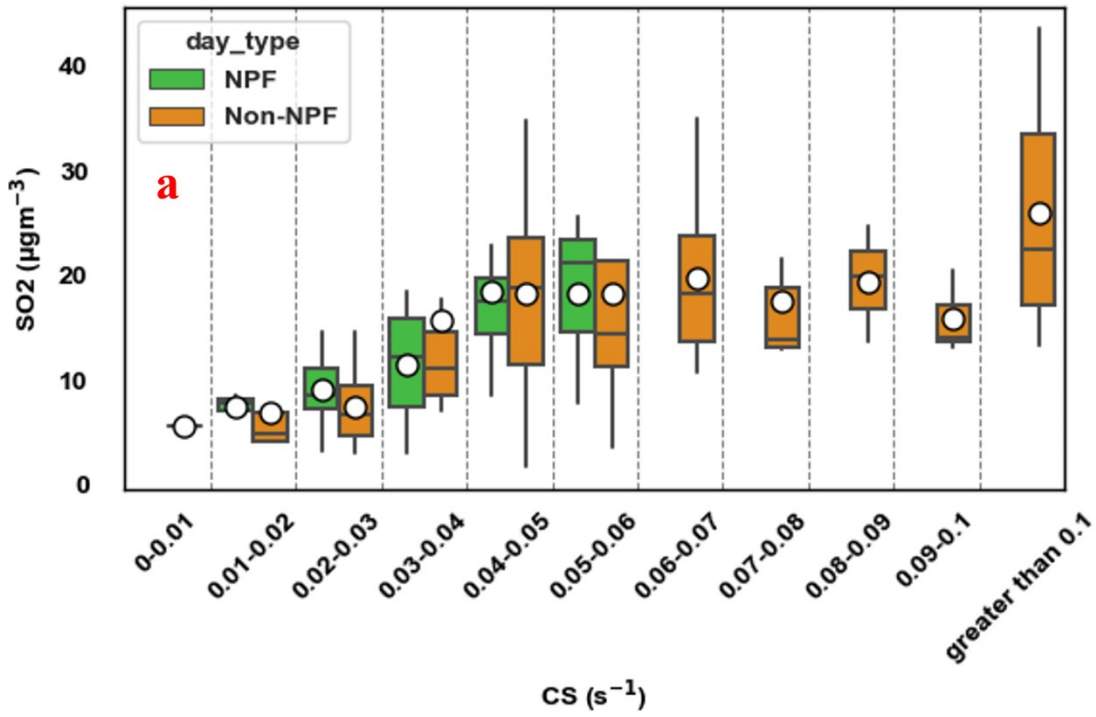
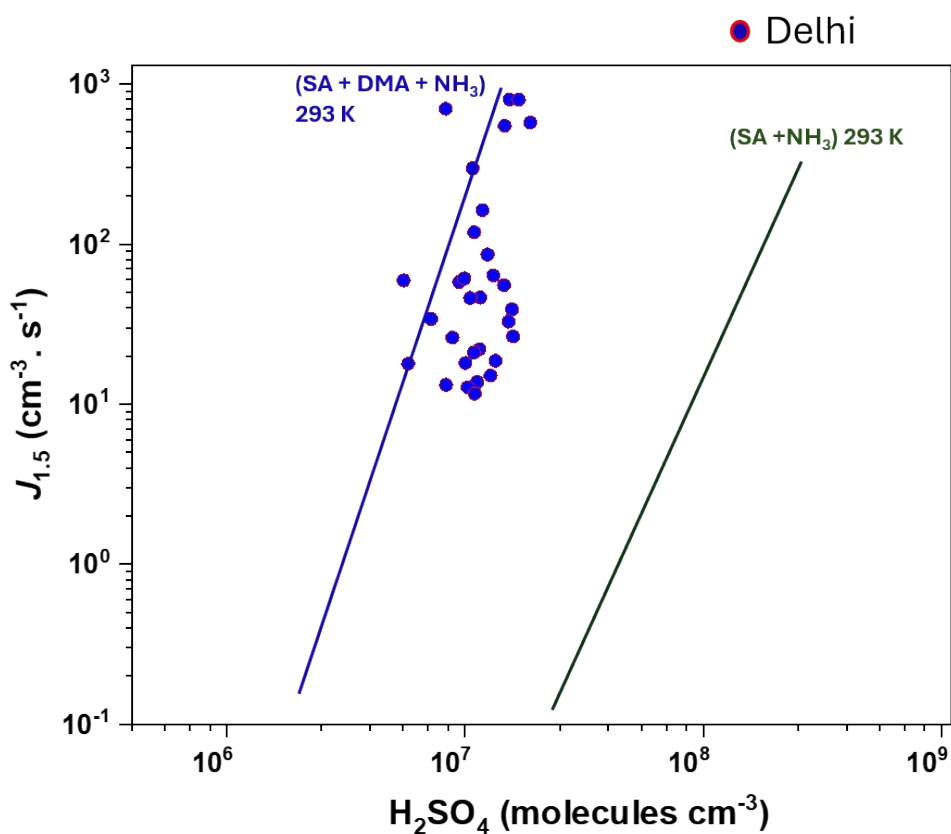


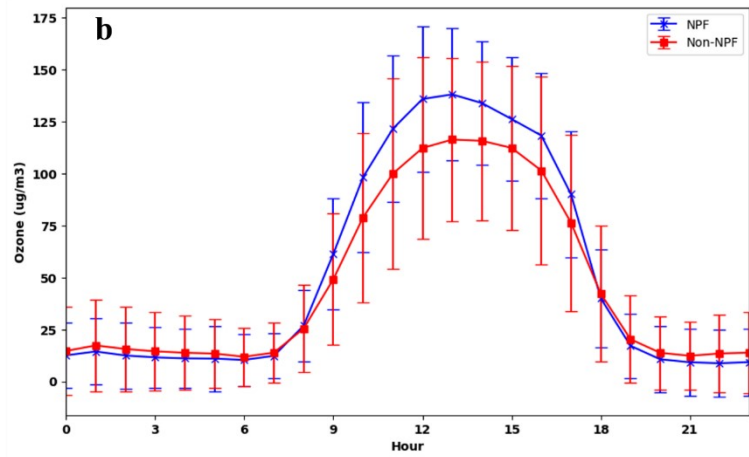
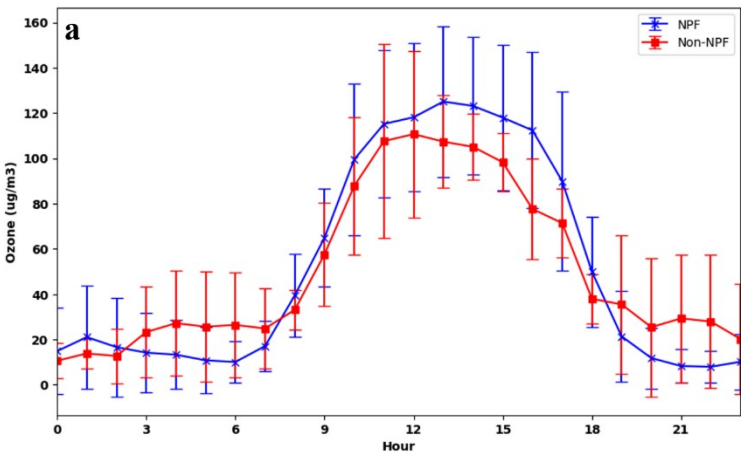
Figure S14: (a and b) Average daily variation of SO₂ and Ozone versus CS (s⁻¹). Each data point represents the average of the variable from 10:00 to 16:00 local time (LT).

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Figure S15: The relationship between nucleation rate ($J_{1.5}$) and sulfuric acid concentration $[H_2SO_4]$ under different precursor conditions at 293 K. The blue line represents the nucleation rate for the system with sulfuric acid, dimethylamine (DMA), and ammonia (NH_3), while the green line represents the system with sulfuric acid and ammonia only.





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Figure S16: (a and b) Comparison of average diurnal variation of measured ozone concentration between NPF and non-NPF days during low CS ($<0.03\text{ s}^{-1}$) and medium CS ($0.03\text{ to }0.06\text{ s}^{-1}$).

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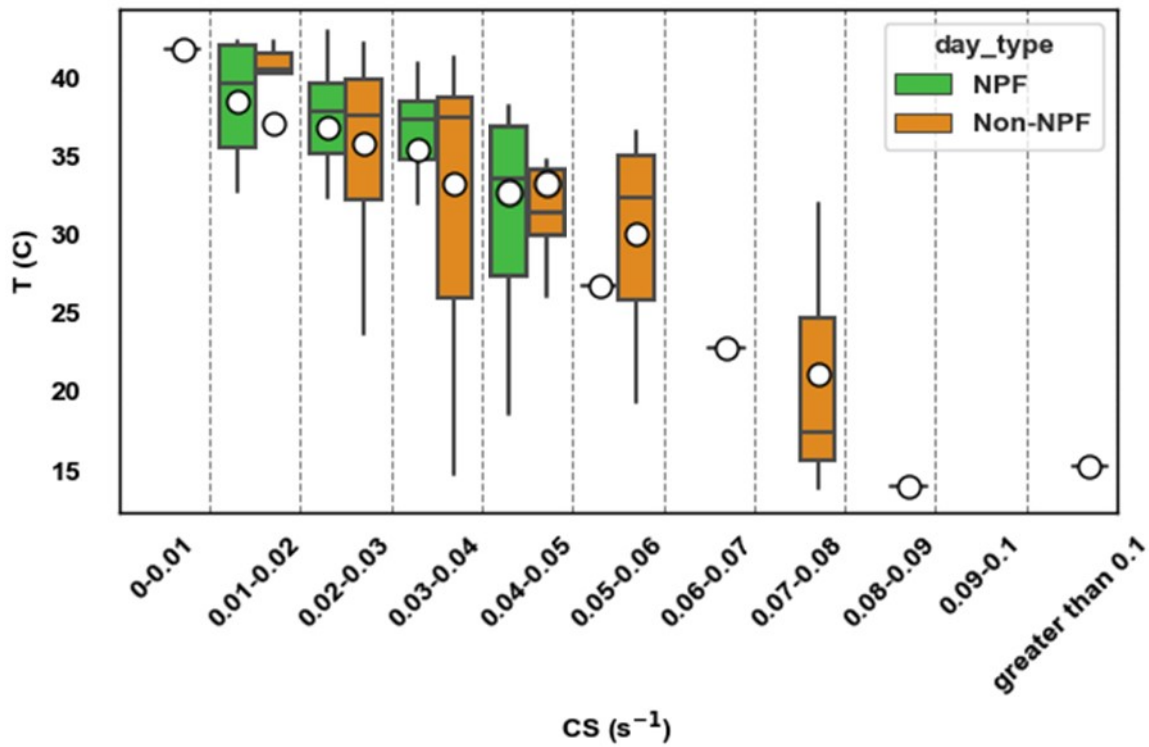
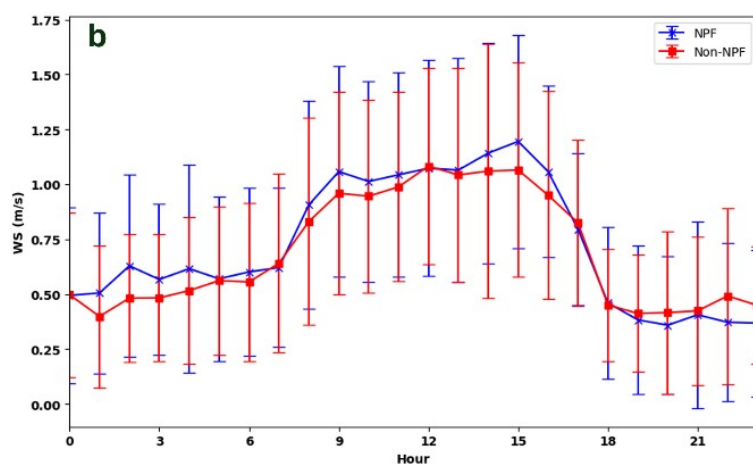
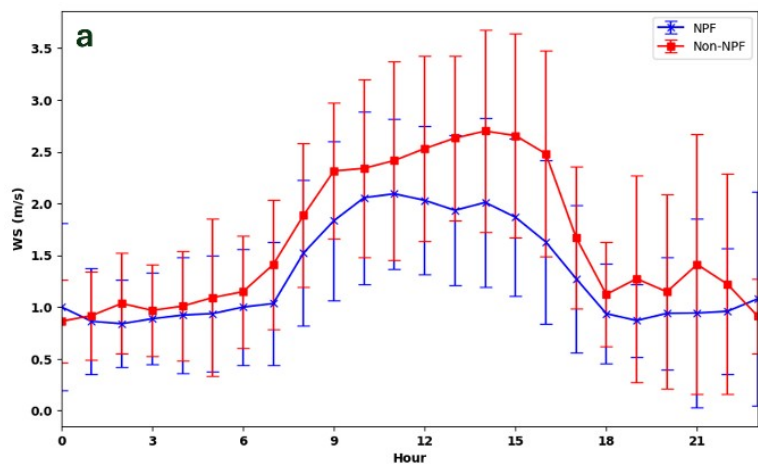


Figure S17: (a and b) Average daily variation of T versus CS (s^{-1}). Each data point represents the average of the variable from 10:00 to 16:00 local time (LT).



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Figure S18: (a and b) Comparison of average diel variation of wind speeds (WS) concentration between NPF and Non-NPF days during low CS ($< 0.03 \text{ s}^{-1}$) and medium CS ($0.03 \text{ to } 0.06 \text{ s}^{-1}$).

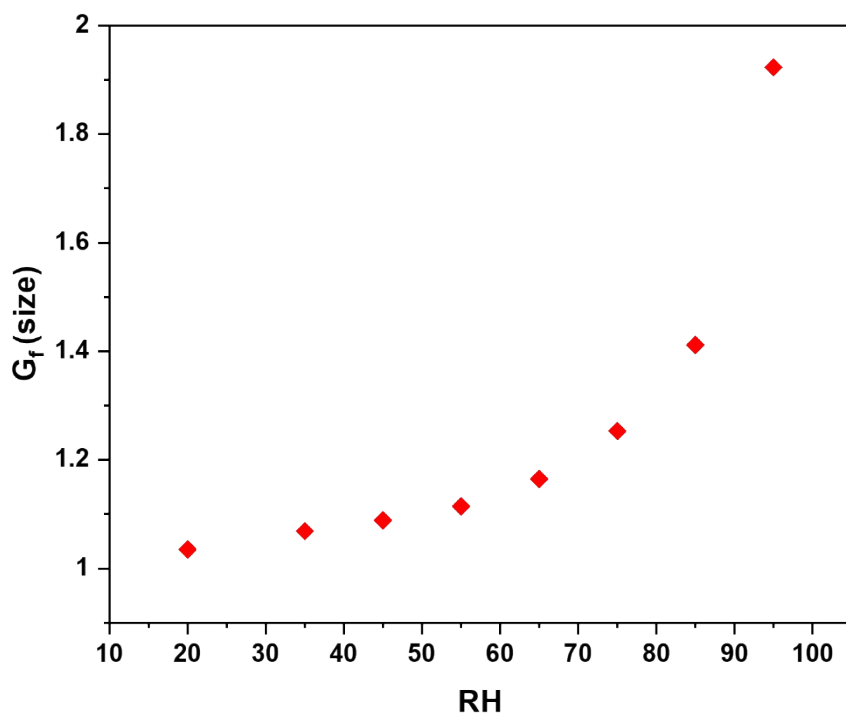
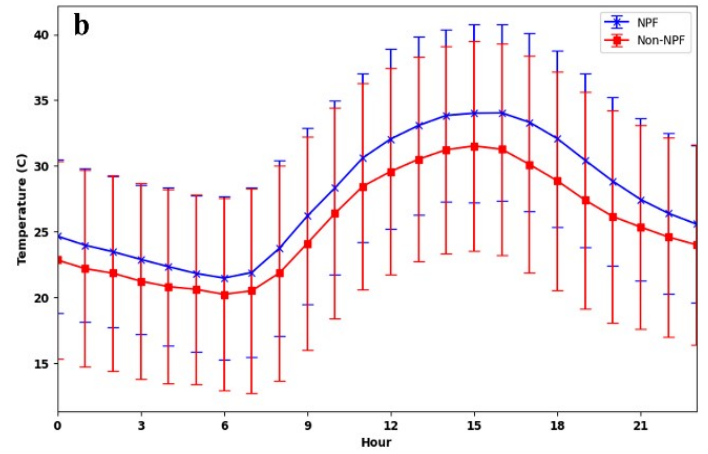
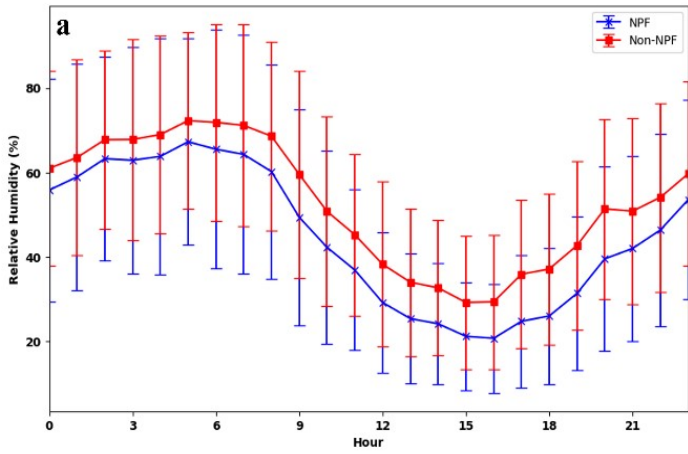


Figure S19: Hygroscopic Growth Factor (Size-Based) (G_r) vs. Relative Humidity (RH, %): In the RH range of 30-60%, the size enhancement of aerosol particles is between 5-15%. This increase in size directly influences the condensation sink (CS) due to the linear relationship between CS and particle size in the continuum regime.

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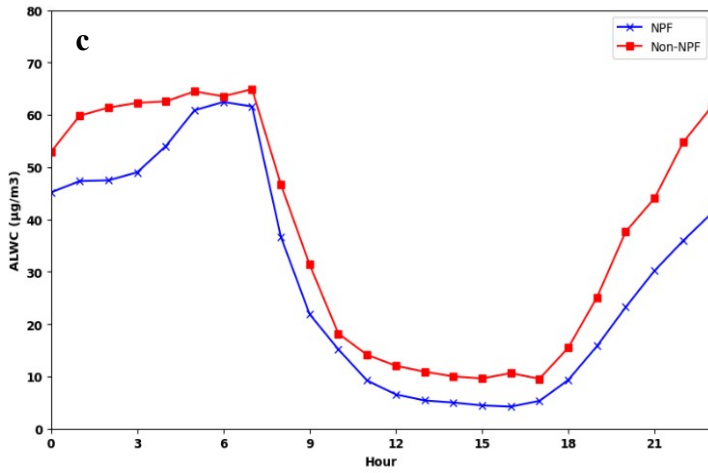


Figure S20: Average diurnal variation of RH, T and ALWC between NPF and non-NPF days during medium CS region (0.03 to 0.06 s^{-1}).

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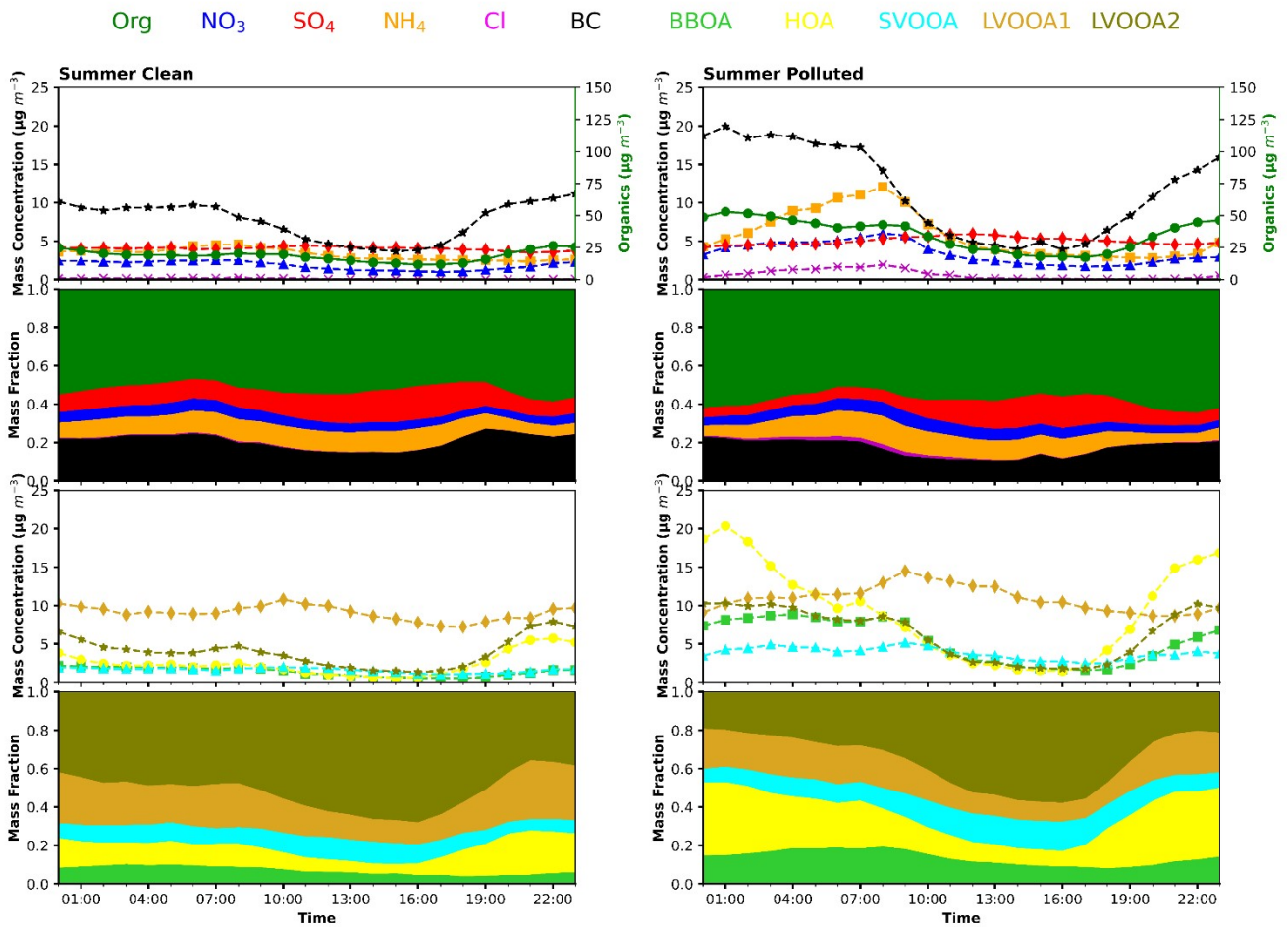


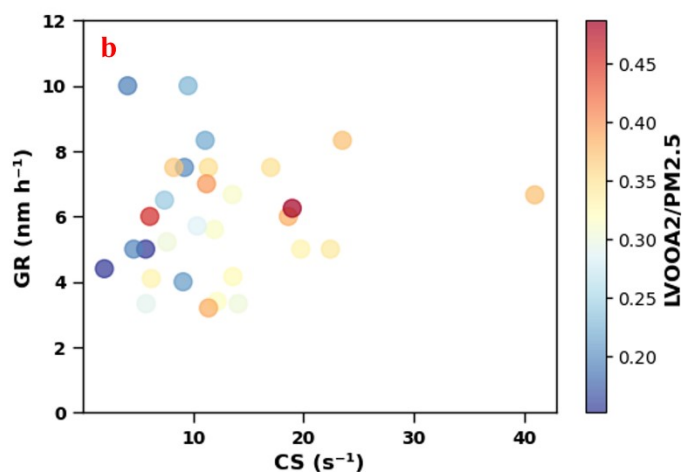
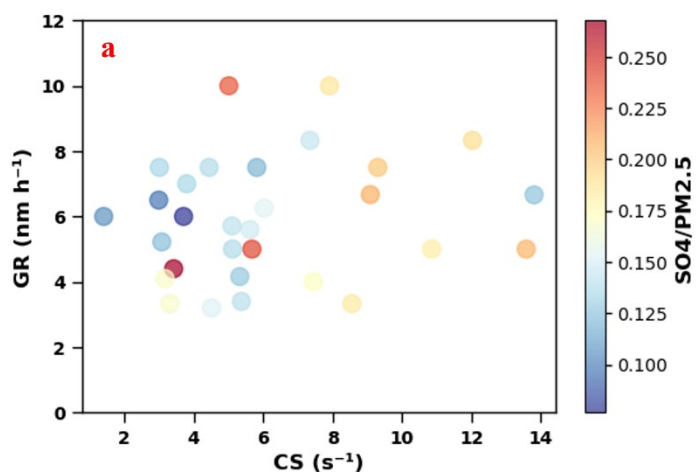
Figure S21: Diurnal variation of average composition of $PM_{2.5}$ during clean and polluted days of summer season. Sulphate and oxygenated organic aerosols (LVOOA2) dominated the mass fractions of inorganics and organics, respectively, during the daytime when observed NPF events take place in our study both clean and polluted periods. The behaviour is similar to spring season, as shown in Figure 7.

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Figure S22: (a) the relationship between GR and CS, color-coded by (a) $SO_4/PM_{2.5}$ and (b) $LVOOA_2/PM_{2.5}$. While SO_4 and $LVOOA_2$ fractions are at their highest during daytime NPF events and dominate $PM_{2.5}$, their ratios do not singularly dictate the growth rates of nucleation mode particles. The findings underscore the need for a more comprehensive approach, incorporating a broader range of variables and interactions to understand particle growth dynamics during NPF events fully.

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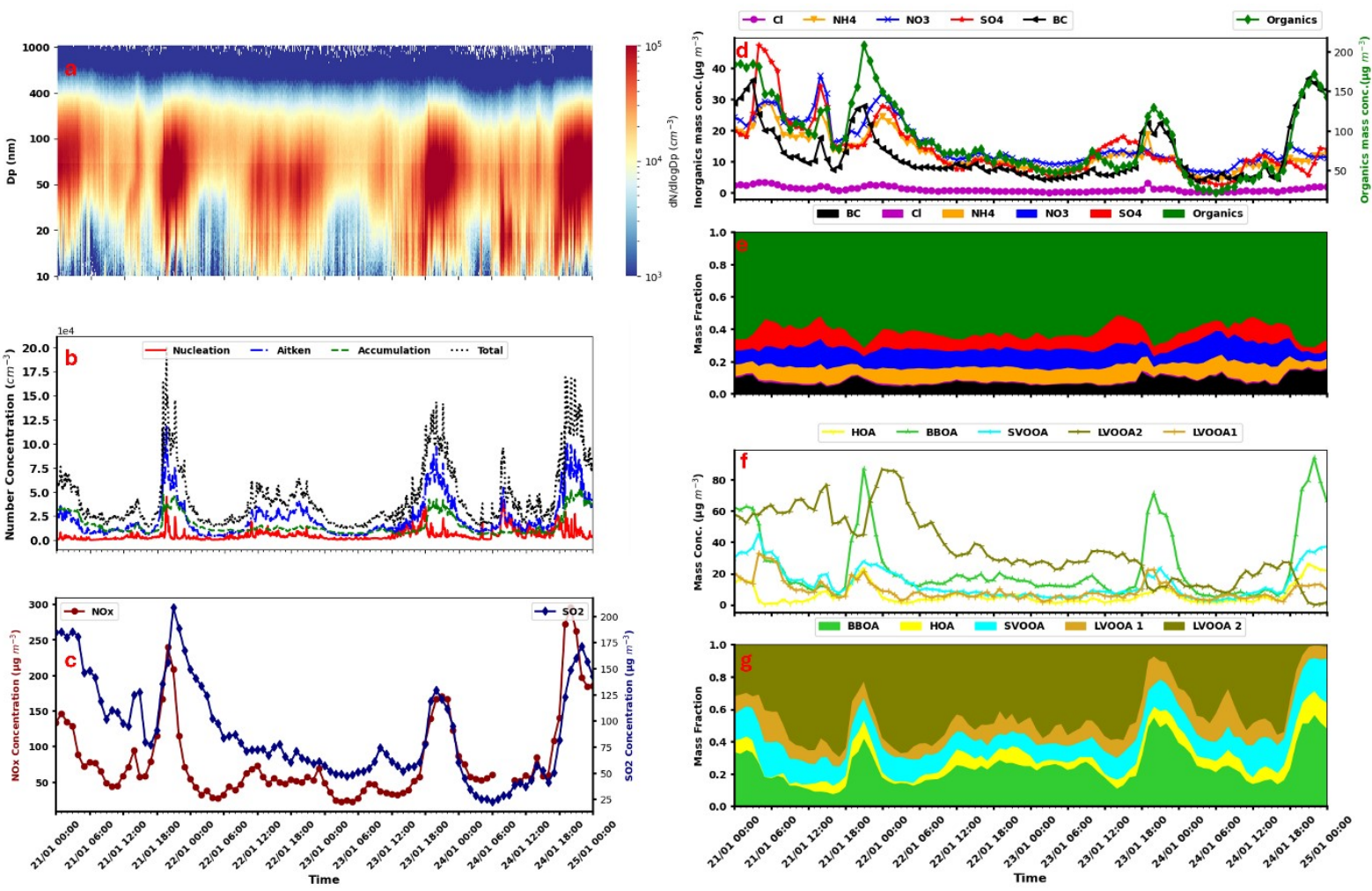


Figure S23: Temporal variation of particle size distribution, mode concentrations, trace gases (NO_x and SO_2) along with chemical composition of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ on three consecutive polluted days of winter season. Higher CS inhibited the NPF during daytime. However, primary emitted particles undergo nighttime rapid growth due to coagulation between particles and condensation of vapours resulting from low RH and T. Primary nature of these processes is validated by the increase in mass concentration of

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